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HUNT'S
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE
AND
COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

SEPTEMBER, 1854.

Art. I.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER X.

WAR OF 1702-13—ASSAULTS BY NEW ENGLAND UPON THE FRENCH FISHERIES—PRIVATEERS—FLORIDA—TREATY OF UTRECHT: PROVISIONS REGARDING THE FISHERIES, FUR TRADE, SOUTH & A COMPANY, THE LOGWOOD SETTLEMENTS, ETC.—STATE OF TRADE DURING THE WAR—PAPER MONEY—FIRST BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES IN SOUTH CAROLINA AND MASSACHUSETTS—COLONIAL TARIFFS—MANUFACTURES—IMMIGRATION—ENCOURAGEMENT OF NAVAL STORES—IRON—FLAX—OTHER PRODUCTS—PROGRESS, AFTER PEACE, OF THE FISHERY—FUR TRADE—WEST INDIA COMMERCE—THE SLAVE TRADE.

In 1702 broke out the great "War of the Austrian Succession," in which—although utterly unconcerned about the illustrious pedigrees and the rights of the princes in whose behalf the contest for the heirship to the crown of Spain was waged—the colonies of England, as of all the other belligerent powers, were involved.

Still New England, at least, of the English dependencies, was ready to engage heartily in the war, making a *cause* for herself in the long-cherished object of expelling the French from Acadia, (Nova Scotia since called,) and from the fishing grounds entirely. She would expend life and treasure with alacrity in the effort, as she had done before, requiring only an assurance that if successful, the whole fruit of the achievement should not be again thrown away by England at the peace.

Armed vessels were at once sent to that region, and the French cruisers stationed there to restrain or to harass the New England fishermen were driven off.

The French government, straining every nerve to bear up successfully against the formidable coalition by which it was assailed in Europe, was unable to afford any considerable aid to its colonies. Still, amid all the danger, it was not insensible to the value of its fisheries and the possessions therewith connected. Great efforts were made to procure a *neutrality* in

regard to the fisheries, and by indefatigable efforts and sundry indirect means, among which was the plentiful use of money, as is stated by Macpherson, they at length succeeded. The arrangement probably related only to the prosecution of the business upon the seas, as it did not restrain expeditions against the territories occupied by the fishermen. Neither is it likely England would have debarred herself, at a time when the opportunity was so good, from acquiring full possession of a region she so eagerly coveted.

At the opening of the war, in addition to the anticipated evils of the contest, several of the chief towns of the colonies were suffering a severe check from the ravages of pestilence. Boston was afflicted with the *small-pox*, while New York was being desolated by the *yellow fever*. Vaccination had not yet been introduced, and both diseases, being little understood by the physicians, were badly treated.

The Canadians, having made peace with the Iroquois in 1703, who refused to take part now on either side, were enabled to direct their whole energy against New England. They had the aid of various Indian tribes from their own region. The Acadians were yet more active. In July, 1703, Massachusetts effected a treaty of peace and Commerce with all the tribes between the Merrimack and Kennebec; but in seven weeks' time they universally yielded to French influence, and to the suggestive remembrance of old grudges; and busy work with the scalping-blade followed on both the eastern and western frontiers.

To revenge these assaults and prevent others, and to effect the scheme promising results so beneficial to their fishing and commercial interests, Massachusetts, in 1704, dispatched a force of 600 men under Col. Benjamin Church, the celebrated Indian fighter, who desolated a considerable part of the open country of Acadia, and burned several villages, but found Port Royal, the capital, had been made too strong for him.

In 1707, encouraged to further effort by the assurance that whatever they might gain by their own efforts would not again be relinquished, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island, equipped another expedition, consisting of a fleet and 1,000 men, for the reduction of Port Royal. The capture of this place had, indeed, become now almost a necessity to the safety of New England, and was an object of some concern to nearly all the colonies. It was the rendezvous not alone of the parties sent out against the frontier settlements of New England, but of privateers, which were numerous on the whole coast of the colonies and had become very troublesome.

Port Royal was situated on the Bay of Fundy, was the capital of all the French fisheries, and had a respectable trade with France. It had an excellent harbor, capable of accommodating 1,000 ships at once. The fisheries and fur trade were the chief pursuits of the small populations of the Acadian villages; agriculture was, as yet, but little attended to. Money was scarce, most of their exchanges being effected by barter. Many of the inhabitants, subsisting by hunting, had no fixed location.

The New England fleet and force laid siege to Port Royal, but the town successfully resisted their efforts.

This untoward result was the occasion of more disaster to the interests of the English colonies. The privateers multiplied in number. At some parts of the coast trade was almost wholly cut off. The allied marauding parties grew bolder and more ferocious in their frontier opera-

tions. In 1708, the town of St. John, the capital of Newfoundland, was surprised by a French force from Acadia and completely destroyed, and in a short time every English station on the island, one only excepted, was in the hands of the French.

In 1710, the third Acadian expedition of this war sailed from Boston, consisting of thirty vessels and four regiments belonging to New England, prepared by an almost desperate effort, combined with six ships-of-war and a corps of marines from the English navy, the whole force being under Gen. Nicholson. This time the attempt was crowned with complete success. Port Royal fell, and the other villages submitted. The name of the capital was changed to Annapolis.

A grand effort was made in the next year to conquer Canada, and complete the expulsion of the French from North America. Beside the New England force, there were fifteen English ships-of-war, forty transports, and a veteran army. New York and New Jersey—united as one province in 1702, and so remaining until 1738—became also active participators in the enterprise. From these two, with Connecticut, a force of 4,000 men proceeded against Quebec and Montreal, by way of the upper wilderness. New York was in the enjoyment of comparative quiet; but she was incited to an effort so unusual by jealousy of the progress made by the French in the Indian trade at and about Lake Ontario, and in what are now the central regions of that State. To secure that trade and the control of the Indians to herself, she made this extraordinary effort to expel the French from Canada.

The entire invasion was a failure, that of the marine expedition being most disastrous.

At the other extreme of the colonies, Carolina, at the opening of the war, was almost equally excited by projects for the extension of colonization and trade, as well as to present and future security. Her antagonists were the allied Spaniards and Indians. They had long foreseen the political and commercial advantages of possessing Florida, and set about the effort of making the acquisition immediately upon the outbreak of the war. A force of 1,200 men was dispatched, the main body proceeding by sea, the rest by land, and laid ineffectual siege to St. Augustine. But they humbled the Indians next year. One great cause of the hostility of the latter was the outrages inflicted upon them by crafty traders, who, in conjunction with strong drink, had impoverished them. Most of their lands had been sold, and the reservations had been encroached upon. Since the visit of Raleigh, they had been miserably degraded and reduced. One tribe had disappeared; another, then numbering 3,000 warriors, had now but 15 men remaining. Of no cause, as we have before remarked regarding the Indians generally, was this deplorable destruction so much the effect, as of a vicious system of commercial intercourse.

For reasons corresponding with those which instigated the Carolinians to assail Florida, a French and Spanish squadron from Havana attacked Charleston in 1706, and reaped no better fortune.

The intermediate colonies—Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia—could not well entertain any of the schemes of commercial and political aggrandizement indulged by the border provinces. They remained in quiet, and escaped the heavy burden which active hostilities imposed upon the others. Like the rest, however, they suffered in their outward trade.

In 1707-8, the enemies' privateers were so thick off the capes of Delaware, and made so many captures, as almost wholly to interrupt the trade of Pennsylvania, which about the same time was subjected also to the exaction of dues for the privilege of navigating the Delaware, levied by order of Gov. Evans, at a fort erected at Newcastle.

In the negotiation of peace at Utrecht in 1713, the British government fully observed its informal promise to New England. Taking advantage of the position of France, which, in spite of her gigantic efforts, had been humbled by the strong alliance against herself and Spain, England sought further the monopoly of all the American fisheries. But France held with so tight a grasp to this valued interest, that she was obliged to content herself with a very partial surrender. Had her enemy felt herself able, by any possible exertions, to preserve the whole of her ancient claims, not a particle of concession would England have gained.

Louis confirmed to his rival the sovereignty of Acadia, which never afterward passed from her possession. The name of the country was changed to Nova Scotia. The treaty utterly prohibited the French from approach within thirty leagues of the coast, beginning at Sable Island, and running thence southwesterly. About the extent of the province, important disputes afterward arose. England assumed that it embraced the whole region to the St. Lawrence, but the French denied that it had ever included more than the present peninsula of Nova Scotia. A large part of the population had retired on the conquest into the upper region, now New Brunswick, and continued to hunt, trade, and fish there. Of this part France maintained possession against the claims of England—which we consider unfounded—until her expulsion from the continent in 1763. The important, though yet unoccupied island of Cape Breton, (the seat of the future *Louisburg*,) and St. John's (now Prince Edward's) island, were guarantied to France.

Thus, of the whole coasts and all the islands of the sides of the gulf adjoining to the continent, and of those in the broad mouth of the River St. Lawrence, France still retained complete possession.

She yielded all claim to any part of Newfoundland, but retained still the right to fish on the eastern coast of that island, from Cape Bonavista to the northern point of the island, and thence along its western side to Point Riche, with the right also for her fishermen to build stages and dry fish upon the shores here described, and to erect huts for residence there in the fishing season. This was almost all the advantage the island could at that time confer upon an exclusive possessor, and it was all enjoyed without the expense of maintaining a supremacy there.

Louis relinquished all claim to Hudson's Bay, which France had never owned or occupied. The concession in no way impaired his dominion in Canada.

The greatest concessions made by France in this treaty were not, indeed, in the fishing region, though the loss of Acadia was an event of much concern. In the acrimonious attacks made in the British Parliament upon the treaty, its negotiators, and the ministry which sanctioned it, the failure on this point was a leading element. It was declared that the interests of Great Britain and of New England had been wilfully sacrificed, and that France had secured all she desired. But this was the extravagance of political animosity, although it was quite possible for better terms to have been made; and, considering the state of the parties, it may seem surpris-

ing that England should not have extorted farther concessions in regard to the fisheries.

So far was New England, in her general interests, *exclusively* concerned of the British provinces in the provisions of the treaty of Utrecht.

An article particularly concerning New York was, that the Iroquois, or Five Nations, were acknowledged to be under the dominion of Great Britain, which was a surrender of the great trading ground between lakes Champlain and Ontario, which had hitherto been freely visited, though not settled upon by the French. In addition to this, the great chain of lakes, hitherto exclusively used by the French, and the upper part of the St. Lawrence, were declared open to the English for the pursuit of the fur trade. The French, however, kept possession of the lakes afterwards, in violation, as the English alleged, of the treaty.

The articles of general interest to the colonies were, the cession of the Island of St. Christopher's, in the West Indies, to England, and the declaration that St. Lucia should be neutral and abandoned by both parties. Provision was made, also, for the utter exclusion of subjects of either from trade in the colonies of the other. But it was provided that they should, nevertheless, enjoy the same privileges in each other's dominions as should be granted the most favored nation. England bound herself to repeal all her prohibitions against French goods and French Commerce, enacted since 1664, and France to repeal her acts retaliatory of these prohibitions, returning to her general tariff of the foregoing year—thus concluding as well the war of commercial regulations as that of material forces. France, however, stipulated the exclusion from this agreement of wool, sugar, salted fish, and the product of whales. The articles of the commercial treaty were violently opposed by the British merchants, and rejected by a house favorable to the ministry, although a treaty with the same provisions was ratified with Spain. It was actually the fact, that the English merchants desired no Commerce with France, regarding her trade as ruinous to the interests of themselves and of the kingdom.

Lord Oxford was impeached, sent to the Tower, and tried for high treason, for his share in the commercial treaty with France, as in defiance of an express act of Parliament, and in contempt of the earnest representations of the British merchants and the Commissioners of Trade and Plantations.

The treaty with Spain provided that any claim that might be proved by the Guipiscons or other people of Spain, to the right of fishing at Newfoundland, should be allowed and preserved to them; but this point was never settled, until Spain finally ceded the full claim to England.

To the English South Sea Company, which had been organized in 1711, during the war, for the purpose of trade with Spanish America, having an exclusive license, Spain granted an *assiento*, or exclusive right to import negroes into several parts of her American possessions, at the rate of 4,800 a year for thirty years, and to send yearly to her colonies one trading ship of 500 tons, the king of Spain to receive one-fourth the profits of the voyage, and five per cent on the other three-fourths. These were the terms before granted a French company. The first year two ships beside the annual ship were, by special license, allowed to be sent.

From this time, for a few years, the South Sea Company attracted great consideration in England, and drew away attention, in a corresponding degree, from the colonies of England to those of Spain. Yet all the splendid

hopes founded upon this company, its brilliant schemes, were doomed to utter disappointment, while the colonies of England continued a steady source of strength and profit. All previous assientists had failed. The privilege granted was inconsiderable, and Spain was not much disposed in any way to favor the English. The company's first annual ship did not sail until 1717, and their first projects were ruined by the war with Spain breaking out in that year.

The treaty left the English undisturbed in their settlements at Campeachy, where they had suffered but one brief interruption since 1682, and seemed thus virtually to seal their right in that quarter. The trade of the colonists to and from the Logwood country, accordingly still continued. The import thence of logwood into Great Britain for the years 1714-15-16, averaged 3,741 tons yearly, of the value of 60,000*l*. Since the settlements were made there the price of logwood had fallen from 100*l*. a ton to 40*l*., in 1717. In the latter year Spain ordered the abandonment of these settlements; but in conformity with the report of the commissioners of Trade and Plantations, asserting the English right, and representing the importance of the logwood trade to England and the colonies, the government refused to relinquish its footing there.

Such were the terms of the treaty of Utrecht particularly concerning the English colonies.

The distress inflicted upon the colonies by the obstructions to their trade during this war, was very severe. To the West Indies, of course, their Commerce was in a great degree cut off, as it could not easily avoid the war-ships and privateers of both France and Spain. The latter power endeavored to supply the want occasioned her islands in the loss of the contraband trade of the English colonies, by opening their ports to the French. Some of them, at least, had not and were not allowed any vessels of their own, neither any manufactures, so that they were entirely dependent for outward supplies on foreign powers, at any time when Spain was at war. The losses of the English colonies through the capture of their vessels by the enemies' privateers, was very heavy. The following statement of imports and exports to and from Great Britain in the years 1700 and 1706, shows the effect of the war upon the Commerce of the colonies:—

	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	1700.	1706.	1700.	1706.
New England.....	£91,918	£57,050	£41,486	£22,210
New York	49,410	31,588	17,567	2,849
Pennsylvania.....	18,529	11,037	4,608	4,210
Virginia and Maryland.....	173,481	58,015	317,302	149,152
Carolina	11,003	4,001	14,058	8,552
Total.....	344,341	161,691	595,021	187,073
	161,691		187,073	
Decrease.....	£182,650		£207,948	

In 1707 the pressure seems to have been mostly removed from all the colonies except Pennsylvania, which exported that year only 786*l*. The aggregate exports of the colonies rose to 284,798*l*., and their imports reached the very high amount of 413,244*l*. In 1710 the exports were 249,817*l*., and the imports 293,662*l*. The exports of 1711 were the most reduced of any year during the war.

The burdens imposed upon the colonies actively engaging in the war were heavy upon all, but upon New England enormous. The sacrifice of life made a very sensible decline in the rate of population increase in that section. The expenditure occasioned by their enterprises, was supported by a higher rate of taxation than prevailed in any other portion of the British empire. Beside the taxes levied in the usual form on the property of the inhabitants, duties under the name of powder-money and like designations were imposed upon imports and shipping. Yet the revenue obtained was far from meeting the calls upon the treasury. Bills of credit were issued in Massachusetts in such quantities as to embarrass the operations alike of government and individuals. There was no other means of providing for the public debt. The yearly expense of the colony for guards, garrisons, guard-ships, &c., was about \$175,000. In 1711 the exchange of these bills were fixed by the general court at 140*l*. for 100*l*. sterling. The debt remaining upon the colony, and in slow process of liquidation, in shape of bills of credit, several years after the war, amounted to about 750,000*l*., equal to about \$6 or \$7 per head.

The first emission of paper money made by Rhode Island was in 1710, to provide for the equipment of the three vessels furnished by her to the Acadian expedition. The amount of the issue was 7,000*l*., in bills of 5*l*. to 2*s*., receivable, like those of Massachusetts, for government dues, and were made legal tender.

To provide for the debt of about \$26,000, created by the Florida expedition, in 1702, the Assembly of South Carolina issued bills of credit, the first paper money put out in that colony. The bills were to be taken up in three years, by the proceeds of a duty upon liquors, furs and skins. They passed current for five or six years at the same rate as sterling.

In 1712, South Carolina established a public *Bank*, apparently the first in the colonies, and issued 48,000*l*. in bills of credit, to be let out at interest on landed or personal security, and to be drawn in at the moderate rate of 4,000*l*. a year. Hewatt says, "soon after the emission of these bills, the rate of exchange and the price of produce rose, and in the first year advanced 150, in the second 200 per cent." In other words, the value of the paper money depreciated to 40 and 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent of its nominal value.

The evils of unredeemed and depreciating paper in Massachusetts, had become such, notwithstanding limitations of the amount, by redemptions occasionally effected through taxes laid for the purpose, as to seriously impede the prosperity of the colony. The public mind was actively agitated by various projects of relief, opinion finally dividing between two parties, one of them advocating a public and the other a private *Bank*. The latter party, headed by Elisha Cooke, contemplated an association, authorized to issue a regulated amount of small bills, for the payment of which real estate should be pledged. The scheme for a public institution prevailed, and the *Bank* was established at Boston. The hope was entertained of securing for it a royal charter, as an inducement to which a premium of one per cent to the crown (upon its capital, probably) was held out in addition to benefits expected for the colony. We may remark, here, that the name of *Bank* was usually applied, at this period, to large emissions of bills by the government, made to suit its own exigencies, but loaned out to the people on mortgage securities.

An emission of new bills to the amount of 50,000*l*., was made in 1714, and in May, 1716, an issue was made of 100,000*l*.

Gov. Shute, who arrived in 1716, found the two parties still actively advocating each its favorite measure. He sided with the friends of the established institution, and thus incurred the violent hostility of the private Bank party, which with other causes of opposition, nearly paralyzed his administration.

In 1715, Rhode Island emitted 40,000*l.*, which was loaned at five per cent for ten years, on mortgage security of double the value. Much of the interest, being secured only by bonds, was lost.

In 1720, the English government deemed this matter of colonial paper issues, deserving of its attention. It must be admitted that the privilege hitherto tacitly accorded in regard to these operations, was an extraordinary indulgence, such as perhaps the colonies of no other nation but England would have been allowed. The occasion of their embarrassments, their voluntary expenditures for the purpose of extending her dominion, was all that could induce the forbearance, so long, of the superior government. At length, in 1720, the matter was deemed to have gone far enough, and an order in council was issued, forbidding any further emissions in the colonies, without the royal assent.*

Another scheme permitted to the colonies in time of war, but now repudiated in peace, was that of levying duties upon foreign commerce. In 1718, an Impost bill was enacted by the General Court of Massachusetts, and sanctioned by the governor, laying a light duty on wines and West India goods, one per cent on the value of British manufactures imported, and a small tonnage duty on English ships. The finances of the colony stood sufficiently in need of the little aid to be obtained from this inconsiderable tariff. But if the tax might of itself have escaped the notice of the British government, the principle could not. The next year, the governor received from the king, instructions that all encouragement should be given to the use of British manufactures in the colony; and in the same year, he received from the lords' justices, in the absence of the king, a reprimand for his approval of the tax alluded to. The governor notified the general court thereof, and they "readily acknowledged the exceptions taken to that clause in the bill were just and reasonable."

In 1720, a duty of *two per cent* was laid by the New York assembly upon goods there imported, this being the first customs project adopted in that colony, it is said. We are not aware whether this did or did not refer to *British* goods.

The war was the occasion of some advance in the *manufactures* of the colonies, owing to the interruption of trade outwardly. In the great scarcity of woollen goods from England, at 1706, the year of small imports, with an advance of about 200 per cent in the price, a considerable progress was made in the manufacture of the coarser kind of those articles,—stuffs, kerseys, linsey-woolseys and flannels. Buttons and other articles connected with clothing, and family use, were also made. These manufactures thereafter progressed during the whole remaining period of colonial dependence.

* In England, in 1708, the right of associative Banking was conferred as a monopoly on the "Governor and Company of the Bank of England," but individuals and partnerships of not above six members, were allowed to act as bankers. The capital of the Bank was raised in 1709, from £2201,171 10*s.* to £6,577,370 17 10*s.*

The paper money used in Canada from about the opening of the century, ceased circulating in 1713, the engagements made by the colonial administration being no longer fulfilled, as their bills of exchange were dishonored in France. The debt thus created was finally liquidated in 1720, at three-eighths the nominal value.

The progress of manufactures was aided very materially by the large arrivals of emigrants about this time, from Germany and other parts. In 1709, two hundred German families from the Rhine, driven out by war and religious persecution, arrived in North Carolina, the proprietors assigning each family two hundred and fifty acres of land. The same year, the benefit derived by Prussia to her trade, manufactures and revenue, from the encouragements given to religious refugees, induced the English parliament to allow the naturalization of foreign protestants in that kingdom. Seven thousand poor Palatines and Swabians accordingly repaired to England, driven out from near the Rhine by the French, and were followed by many more. Three thousand of these were sent to New York, but being badly received there, went thence to Pennsylvania, where the quakers kindly received them. This circumstance gave the turn thither of the large emigration following, of protestants from Germany and Switzerland. Many of these emigrants were skilful mechanics.

The war was the occasion of the adoption by England of the policy of systematic encouragement in the colonies of the production of *Naval Stores*. Hitherto, the main dependence for these supplies, had been upon Sweden. In 1703, soon after the opening of the war, the Swedish Tar Company refused to let England have any tar or pitch, though it was always paid for in ready money, unless Swedish vessels were allowed to carry it, and at their own rate of freightage, in quantity to be regulated by the company. This was rather an inconvenient restriction, and as Mr. Gee observes, put the parliament "on the method of allowing bounties for raising pitch, tar, hemp, flax and ship timber, in our North American colonies." The first act for encouraging the import of naval stores from the colonies, was passed in 1704. It offered bounties on the import therefrom, in vessels regulated by the navigation acts, on tar and pitch per ton of eight barrels, 4*l*.; on rosin and turpentine, per ton, 3*l*.; on hemp, per ton, 6*l*.; on masts, yards and bowsprits, per ton, 1*l*. The act also prohibited the destruction in New England, New York or New Jersey,* of any pitch-pine or tar-trees, under the growth of twelve inches diameter at three feet from the earth, if not private property, under 5*l*. penalty for each offense. This act, together with the advance of fifty per cent occasioned by the war in the price of naval stores, very decidedly encouraged their production in America.

Another act, in 1710, authorized the application of 10,000*l*. to the employment and subsistence of a number of skilful people, and for providing utensils and materials to advance the business of producing naval stores in the colonies.

An act of 1711, imposed a penalty of 100*l*. for the destruction in New England, New York or New Jersey, of white or other pine trees, not private property, of 24 inches diameter and upwards at a foot from the earth. The queen's surveyor-general was directed to mark all the trees fit for the use of the navy with a broad arrow. The importation of masts and spars from the colonies was thereafter so largely increased, that England was in a great degree enabled to withdraw her dependence from Norway for these articles.

* Carolina, the other colony particularly adapted to the production of naval stores, was under a company proprietorship until 1720. So also was Pennsylvania, the title to which Mr. Penn bargained to the crown in 1710, for £12,000, but before the sale was completed he died, and his heirs retained possession. Maryland was a royal colony, but returned to the original proprietor, Lord Baltimore, in 1715, and remained a proprietary colony, with Pennsylvania, up to the Revolution.

The bounties on naval stores were in 1714 extended to Scotland, where pine and fir trees were abundant, but as they were situated in mountainous parts, remote from navigable rivers, the encouragement availed them but little.

In 1715, one fleet from New England, carried to London 6,000 barrels of pitch, tar and turpentine.

The law for the preservation of trees suitable for masts, was not much observed. Under Gov. Shute's administration a dispute arose between the king's surveyor and the people of the part of Massachusetts now the state of Maine, concerning their spoliation upon the king's woods. The governor proposed a law to be enacted by the general court, enforcing the act of parliament, but the legislature upheld the popular cause, and an embittered controversy followed.

In 1718, a company of merchants in Portsmouth were incorporated for the manufacture of tar, pitch and turpentine in that colony, but was defeated by the public dislike of the monopoly. The Assembly then encouraged the manufacture by making tar at 20s. a barrel receivable in payment of public taxes. The business was not long after abandoned in that colony.

In 1718 a Ropewalk was built in New York.

Under the laws relating to naval stores, "now in force," says Macpherson, referring to the year 1719, "comprehending only pitch, tar and turpentine, such great quantities thereof are produced and imported from our plantations, as enables us to export great quantities to the Straits, Spain, Portugal, Holland, Bremen and Hamburg." This is a very remarkable change in the course of an important trade, to have been effected in so short a time, and illustrates the facility with which the great resources of America could be, under favoring circumstances, developed. The design was now entertained of extending the encouragement to other articles for naval use. Timber, hemp, flax, and also iron were suggested. But there was opposition to some of these. A bill was prepared to extend the encouragement to the importation of timber, of all kinds, and advocated as a means of furnishing abundant freights to British vessels, and enlarging the American market for British manufactures, beside diverting the colonists from the business of manufacturing, themselves, on which they seemed determined to push forward. The bill failed by being coupled with a prohibitory provision against the manufacture of iron in the colonies.

As we have before noticed, Iron had been abundantly found in New England, as well as in other parts, and several forges had been set up in Massachusetts. Some of the more ordinary articles used in agriculture, ship building and other employments, were made, but the manufacture had not progressed to any great extent. About 1715 pig and bar iron began to be made in Virginia, of a very good quality. In 1717 exportations of iron were made from the colonies to England, which excited the jealousy of the English manufacturers. There were those, however, who saw the wisdom of encouraging an iron interest in America. It would much enlarge the business with the colonies, they argued, and benefit British commerce with all parts of the world. Great quantities might be exported to Europe, to Africa and India. The great business of the Dutch in this article might be wrested from their hands. Beside this, Great Britain did not yet make iron enough for her own use, importing still, about 20,000 tons yearly from the north of Europe, paying therefor in

ready money, at 12*l.* a ton, 240,000*l.* Nor did it seem likely she would be able to supply herself, as the British works were destroying very rapidly the forests of England and Ireland, which could not hold out much longer. Other interests were thus damaged by the iron manufacture. The oaks so much needed for masts were almost totally destroyed. So much had the woods vanished from Ireland, that, according to Macpherson, they had to get bark for tanning purposes from England, to export their large hides to Holland, Germany, &c., untanned, and to import building-timber from Norway. The import of boards and timber from foreign countries into Great Britain, amounted to 200,000*l.* yearly. Added to all, the duty on the export of the iron from Sweden had lately been increased nearly 25 per cent.

Under these circumstances, it should seem the good policy of encouraging the production of iron in America, in its raw state, at least, if not the manufacture, would have been apparent to the most inattentive. Beside the needed supply of iron, the effect would have been, by the inroads occasioned upon the American forests through the erection of furnaces, to advance, incidentally, the business of making naval stores, generally, and of preparing lumber, so that England might have been relieved of several distressing dependencies on other nations all at one time.

It was not that the iron manufacture was a small interest in England that it failed to supply the wants of that country. It employed at that time 20,000 operatives, and was deemed the third manufacturing business of the kingdom. It had been proposed to remit the duties on the import of American iron. The iron-masters, in their memorials, declared that if this were done the American iron would, from the cheapness of wood in the colonies, undersell the British in their own markets, and ruin all the establishments erected at such great expense. At their instance a bill was brought into the Commons, in 1719, the first clause of which, encouraging the importation of timber from America, we have already noticed. The other part, was a prohibition of the manufacture in the colonies of iron ware, of any sort, from sows, pigs or bars. The peers added a clause that no forge going by water, or other work whatsoever, should be erected in the colonies for making sows, pigs or cast iron, into bar or rod iron. "By this bill," says a British writer of the period, "no smith in the plantations might so much as make a bolt, spike or nail; whereby the colonies must have been brought into a miserable condition; the smith being above all other trades, absolutely necessary to all other employments there." Among the rest shipbuilding, so great an element of colonial prosperity, and the means, whereby great part of the returns were made for the purchase of British manufactures, would have been destroyed. The policy was warmly debated, in both houses, and the bill was finally rejected.

The sentiment of the parliament was however expressed during the year, "that erecting any manufactories in the colonies tended to lessen their dependence upon Great Britain."

Among the causes which should have prevented the least attempt to restrict the progress of colonial manufactures and trade, were the already apparent schemes of the French, of shutting the English settlements within a narrow strip upon the coast, and building up in the heart of the continent a power which might eventually push them entirely into the ocean. To defeat this threatening project, all the strength which the colonies

could command would be needed in aid of the power of England. What-ever tended to weaken them or delay their growth, materially advanced the prospects of the French.

Excellent Copper had been found in the colonies, but as yet no Tin or Lead. Flax was as yet but little cultivated in the colonies, as well as hemp, though the soil was so favorable to both. In 1704, professedly to encourage the Protestant interest in Ireland, the navigation acts were so far amended as to permit the export of Irish linen to the colonies. The linen manufacture of Ireland was chiefly in the province of Ulster, where the Protestants were in great majority. The culture of flax was introduced into New Hampshire, in 1719, by a party of Irish Protestants, who founded the town of Londonderry. They brought with them the foot-wheel, and in a short time a considerable quantity of flax was produced in the colony. These emigrants brought also the Irish Potato, then first introduced, the Spanish Potato not being brought in until 1764.

In 1706 Rice was placed by parliament among the *enumerated* articles, and thus could be thenceforth shipped from America nowhere but directly to England. The object was to secure the transportation of it to Europe and other parts, to British vessels.

The export of Tobacco from America into Great Britain, for the ten years ending 1709, was, yearly average, 28,858,666 pounds, of which was re-exported to Europe, 17,598,007, and consumed in Great Britain, the balance, 11,260,659 pounds.

According to Beverly, there were Vineyards in Virginia about 1720, some of them producing 750 gallons of Wine a year. The raising of Silk was introduced into Carolina in 1703, and flourished awhile, but soon failed, as more profit was derived from rice and indigo. It was introduced into the small colony of Louisiana in 1718-19. In 1713 the silk manufacture of England was twenty times as large as in 1664, when the exclusion of French silks, along with other goods, began.

The fishery progressed rapidly after the war. The French, also, made every effort to retain their importance in this pursuit. Cape Breton island was settled by emigrants from Acadia and Newfoundland, in 1714, and others followed from France. In 1720, Louisburg, the principal settlement on the island was fortified by the French government. In 1721 there were 400 sail at Newfoundland, from France. The English, meanwhile were at war with the discontented Indians of Nova Scotia, who much obstructed their fisheries. In 1702 the export of fish from Newfoundland to Spain, Portugal and Italy, amounted to 106,952 quintals. Marblehead was a small village, not yet engaged in the fisheries.

In the Whale fishery Nantucket had employed, in 1715, six sloops, averaging thirty-eight tons each. At Cape Cod and Rhode Island the same business was pursued in boats, which were manned in the latter principally by Indians, and cruised in Narragansett bay.

Ship-building went forward. The first *schooner* ever built was launched, it is said, at Cape Ann, about 1714, by Capt. Andrew Robinson. Massachusetts, in 1717, owned 492 vessels, of all sizes, measuring 25,406 tons, and carrying 3,493 sailors. In 1719 there were built in Pennsylvania 4,514 tons of shipping.

In 1715, the Massachusetts General Court passed an act for erecting a light-house on Beacon island, at the entrance of Boston harbor.

In 1715, Kittery, in the present State of Maine, situated on the Piscataqua, opposite Portsmouth, was made by Massachusetts a port of entry,

in rivalry of Portsmouth. Kittery was the seat of an extensive fishery, and of some trade. The occasion of the act was the alleged enforcement by New Hampshire of improper duties and exactions from the merchants and fishermen of Massachusetts trading on the Piscataqua. All vessels and traders upon the river were ordered to pay their powder money, duties on imports, &c., at the milder rates of Massachusetts, and into her treasury, and to enforce the order, a fortification of six guns was erected at Kittery. Much excitement arose out of the difficulty.

In the management of their Indian trade, the French of Canada discovered that the English colonies could furnish British manufactures to the Indians and their own rum, cheaper than they could obtain like goods from France, and that they must be pushed out of the trade, or substitute English for French goods. Accordingly a trade was got up, and soon reached a very considerable condition, with the outer English settlements. The Hudson river and Lake Champlain were the great avenue of this traffic, the desired articles being sent thither from New York and Boston. The general court of Massachusetts, in 1720, prohibited the sale of any goods to the French intended for the Indian trade, hoping thus to weaken the French colonies.

In 1715, the colony of South Carolina was involved in a war with a great Indian confederacy, headed by the Yamasees, extending from Cape Fear river to the Alabama, and numbering 6000 warriors. Her militia was levied *en masse*, and even the slaves were armed. Though triumphant, the loss of 400 men, or nearly *one-third* of her able-bodied males, in this conflict, greatly retarded the prosperity of the colony. The heavy debt created the colony refused to pay, as belonging more properly to the proprietary.

The agreement with the French at the treaty of Utrecht, relative to the isolation of their respective colonies, did not prevent intercourse thereafter between English-America and the French islands. Immediately upon the peace, an active contraband trade grew up between New England and the French West Indies, as well also as with those of the Dutch. Pennsylvania and other colonies joined in the trade, provisions, horses, lumber, &c., being exchanged for sugar, molasses and other products.

The new Council of Commerce established in France in 1700, had laid down principles of such liberality regarding the French colonies, as if put into full practical force would have left little occasion for a contraband intercourse with them. They condemned the previous system of committing the interests of the colony to an exclusive company; condemned the Guinea Company as enhancing the price of slaves, and advised the *abolition of all commercial monopolies*. "It is," they say, "a most certain maxim, that nothing but competition and liberty in trade can render Commerce beneficial to the State; and that all monopolies or traffic appropriated to companies, exclusive of others, are inconveniently burdensome and pernicious to it."

Though companies might have been needed forty years before, when the French were little versed in navigation and Commerce, to strike out tracks for the body of subjects in the unknown field, the day of their need or propriety was now passed. They advised also a reduction of the duty on the import of colonial sugar in France, and that French ships should be allowed to carry it directly to foreign ports. The principle thus enunciated, carried to its legitimate extent, removed every pretext for even a *national monopoly*. It could be answered only by making the trade of

the French islands free to all nations. But the Council did not observe this result. The inhibitory clause was inserted in the treaty of Utrecht, and monopolies were retained in France.

Few taxes were levied by the Council on the colonies. There was an export duty of two per cent *ad valorem* on their products, but no tax upon imports. Salaries of all colonial officers, and the expense of fortifications and general defense, were paid from the French treasury, occasioning a heavy taxation upon the French people, and heightening the fiscal difficulties of the government. The benefit of the exclusive trade which was to compensate the burden of colonies thus managed, was lost through the bold and active operations of the British-American and West Indian smugglers, with whom the very officers appointed by the Council connived. The policy, indeed, of the Council itself paralyzed all Commerce in a little while, except this contraband traffic and the slave trade, until it at length succeeded in ruining itself. In 1720, the government resumed the administration of colonial matters.

In 1715, two years after the treaty, the British sugar colonies, (Barbadoes, Jamaica, &c.) complained to the home government that the New England provinces had established a great trade with the French and Dutch colonies, in contravention of the treaty, which operated to their injury, as the supplies of sugar, molasses, &c., thence derived, lessened the demand for *their* products. They mention the Dutch colony of Surinam as an especial theater of this trade, where provisions, fish, &c., were sold in return for molasses, which the New Englanders made into rum. This was the first rude complaint that had been offered.

About this time the trade of St. Thomas, a small Danish island hitherto held exclusively by the Danish West India and Guinea Company, which had employed but one vessel to transact the whole Commerce of the island, was opened to the Dutch and to the British colonists of North America. The island was then nearly starved out, but this measure greatly stimulated its prosperity. The privilege to the Dutch was not long afterward withdrawn.

Under the freedom granted in the African trade, New England engaged, or rather continued therein, though to a small extent compared with the British merchants. Rhode Island was particularly concerned in this traffic. Rum, made from the West India molasses, was exported to the African coast in considerable quantity, as well as other goods, with which the negroes were purchased from the factors and from traders of their own complexion. By far the greater proportion of the slaves were carried to the British sugar islands, from which they were distributed to others. In no year between 1703 and 1775, were there less than 2,200 negroes imported into the island of Jamaica. Large numbers were, however, brought in the English and colonial vessels to the North American colonies. The great market here, was at the South, (though Virginia passed many laws against the traffic,) yet many came to New York, a slave-market being established in the city in 1712, and a small number were brought to New England. In 1707, Rhode Island laid a duty of 3*l.* a head upon all negroes imported in that colony, probably as a measure of war-revenue. The year the market was established in New York, the negroes had become so numerous that the people were alarmed by a Black insurrection, real or supposed, and in the panic prevailing 119 of these unfortunate beings were executed. Chalmers states the whole number of slaves in the colonies, in 1715, at 58,850.

Art. II.—WINE, AND THE WINE AND SPIRIT TRADE.

WHAT WINE IS—LAND FAVORABLE TO ITS PRODUCTION—VINTAGE, ETC.—MODE OF MANUFACTURING WINE—ANNUAL PRODUCTION OF WINE—ANALYSIS OF WINES—PRODUCT OF WINE IN OHIO EXTENDING—IMPORTS OF WINES AND SPIRITS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM 1843 TO 1853—DUTIES ON WINES AND SPIRITS—IMPORTS OF BRANDY AND GRAIN SPIRITS—BEER, ALE, AND PORTER FROM ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND—STATISTICS OF THE WINE AND SPIRIT TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM AND OF LIVERPOOL—CHAMPAGNE—ADULTERATIONS OF WINE AND SPIRITS, ETC.

WINE, as every reader of the *Merchants' Magazine* is aware, is the fermented juice of the grape. In the more southern states of Europe, the grapes, being more saccharine, afford a more abundant production of alcohol and stronger wines, as exemplified in the best port, sherry, and Madeira. The influence of solar heat upon the vines may, however, be mitigated by growing them to moderate heights on level ground, and by training them in festoons under the shelter of trees. In the more temperate climates, such as the district of Burgundy, the finer flavored wines are produced; and there the vines are usually grown upon hilly slopes fronting the south, with more or less of an easterly or westerly direction, as on the Côte d'Or, at a distance from marshes, forests, and rivers, whose vapors might deteriorate the air. The plains of this district, even when possessing a similar or analogous soil, do not produce wines of so agreeable a flavor. The influence of temperature becomes very manifest in countries further north, where, in consequence of a few degrees of thermometric depression, the production of generous agreeable wine becomes impossible.

The land most favorable to the vine is light, easily permeable to water, but somewhat retentive by its composition; with a sandy subsoil, to allow the excess of moisture to drain readily off. Calcareous soils produce the highly esteemed wines of the Côte d'Or; a granite debris forms the foundations of the lands where the Hermitage wines are grown; silicious soil interspersed with flints furnishes the celebrated wines of Château-Neuf, Ferté, and La Gaude; schistose districts afford also good wine, as that called *la Malgue*. Thus we see that lands differing in chemical composition, but possessed of the proper physical qualities, may produce most agreeable wines; and so also may lands of like chemical and physical constitution, produce various kinds of wine, according to their varied exposure. As a striking example of these effects, we may adduce the slopes of the hills which grow the wines of Montrachet. The insulated part towards the top furnishes the wine called *Chevalier Montrachet*, which is less esteemed and sells at a much lower price than the delicious wine grown on the middle height, called *true Montrachet*. Beneath this district and in the surrounding plains the vines afford a far inferior article called *bastard Montrachet*. The opposite side of the hills produces very indifferent wine. Similar differences, in a greater or less degree, are observable relatively to the districts which grow the Pomard, Volnay, Beaune, Nuits, Vougeot, Chambertin, Romanée, &c. Everywhere it is found that the reverse side of the hill, the summit, and the plain, although generally consisting of like soil, afford inferior wine to the middle southern slopes.*

The vintage in the temperate provinces generally takes place about the end of September; and it is always deteriorated whenever the fruit is not ripe enough before the 15th or 20th of October; for, in this case, not only

* Ure's Dictionary.

is the must more acid and less saccharine, but the atmospherical temperature is apt to fall so low during the nights as to obstruct more or less its fermentation into wine. The grapes should be plucked in dry weather at the interval of a few days after they are ripe; being usually gathered in baskets, and transported to the vats in dorsels sufficiently tight to prevent the juice from running out. Whenever a layer about 14 or 15 inches thick has been spread on the bottom of the vat, the treading operation begins, which is usually repeated after macerating the grapes for some time, when an incipient fermentation has softened the texture of the skin and the interior cells. When the whole bruised grapes are collected in the vat, the juice, by means of a slight fermentation, reacts through the acidity thus generated upon the coloring matter of the husks, and also upon the tannin contained in the stones and the fruit-stalks. The process of fermentation is suffered to proceed without any other precaution except forcing down from time to time the pellicles and pedicles floated up by the carbonic acid to the top; but it would be less apt to become acetous were the mouths of the vats covered. With this view, M. Seville Auger introduced with success his elastic bung in the manufacture of wine in the department of the Maine-et-Loire.

With whatever kind of apparatus the fermentation may have been regulated, as soon as it ceases to be tumultuous and the wine is not sensibly saccharine or muddy, it must be racked off from the lees by means of a spigot, and run into the ripening tuns. The marc being then gently squeezed in a press affords a tolerably clear wine, which is distributed among the tuns in equal proportions; but the liquor obtained by stronger pressure is reserved for the casks of inferior wine.

In the South of France the fermentation sometimes proceeds too slowly, on account of the must being too saccharine; an accident which is best counteracted by maintaining a temperature of about 65° or 68° F., in the tun-room. When the must, on the other hand, is too thin and deficient in sugar, it must be partially concentrated by rapid boiling before the whole can be made to ferment into a good wine. By boiling up a part of the must for this purpose, the excess of ferment is at the same time destroyed. Should this concentration be inconvenient, a certain proportion of sugar must be introduced immediately after racking it off.

The specific gravity of must varies with the richness and ripeness of the grapes which afford it; being in some instances so low as 1.0627, and in others so high as 1.1283. This happens particularly in the south of France. In the district of the Necker in Germany, the specific gravity varies from 1.050 to 1.090; in Heidelberg from 1.039 to 1.091; but it varies much in different years.

After the fermentation is complete the vinous part consists of water, alcohol, a coloring matter, a peculiar aromatic principle, a little undecomposed sugar, bitartrate and malate of potash, tartrate of lime, muriate of soda, and tannin; the latter substances being in small proportions.

It is known that a few green grapes are capable of spoiling a whole cask of wine, and therefore they are always allowed to become completely ripe, and even sometimes to undergo a species of slight fermentation, before being plucked, which completes the development of the saccharine principle. At other times the grapes are gathered whenever they are ripe, but are left for a few days on wicker-floors to sweeten before being pressed.

In general the whole vintage of the day is pressed in the evening, and

the resulting must is received in separate vats. At the end usually of 6 or 8 hours, if the temperature be above 50° F., and if the grapes have not been too cold when plucked, a froth or scum is formed at the surface which rapidly increases in thickness. After it acquires such a consistence as to crack in several places, it is taken off with a skimmer and drained; and the thin liquor is returned to the vat. A few hours afterwards another coat of froth is formed which is removed in like manner, and sometimes a third may be produced. The regular vinous fermentation now begins, characterized by air-bubbles rising up the sides of the staves, with a peculiar whizzing as they break at the surface. At this period all the remaining froth should be quickly skimmed off and the clear subjacent must be transferred into barrels, where it is left to ripen by a regular fermentation.*

The following is given by a practical wine producer as the usual mode of manufacturing wine:—

The wine press, or *curvier de pressoir*, consists in the majority of cases of a massive shallow tub, varying in size from four square feet to as many square yards. It is placed either upon wooden trestles or on a regularly-built platform of mason work, under the huge rafters of a substantial outhouse. Close to it stand a range of great butts, their number more or less according to the size of the vineyard. The grapes are flung by the tub and cask full into the curvier. The treaders stamp diligently amid the masses, and the expressed juice flows plentifully out of a hole level with the bottom of the trough into a sieve of iron or wickerwork, which stops the passage of the skins, and from thence drains into tubs below. Suppose at the moment of our arrival the curvier for a brief space empty. The treaders—big, perspiring men, in shirts and tucked-up trowsers—spattered to the eyes with splashes of purple juice, lean upon their wooden spades and wipe their foreheads. But their respite is short. The creak of another cart-load of tubs is heard, and immediately the wagon is backed up to the broad open window, or rather hole in the wall, above the trough. A minute suffices to wrench out tub after tub, and to tilt their already half-smashed clusters into the reeking *pressoir*. Then to work again; jumping, with a sort of spiteful eagerness, into the mountain of yielding, quivering fruit, the treaders sink almost to the knees, stamping and jumping and rioting in the masses of grapes, as fountains of juice spurt about their feet and rush bubbling and gurgling away. Presently, having, as it were, drawn the first sweet blood of the new cargo, the eager tramping subsides into a sort of quiet, measured dance, which the treaders continue while, with their wooden spades, they turn the pulpy remnants of the fruit hither and thither, so as to expose the half-squeezed berries in every possible way to the muscular action of the incessantly-moving feet.

According to a statement in the *Dictionnaire Technologique*, the annual produce of a hectare of vineyard, upon the average of 113 years, in the district of Volnay, is 1,779 litres, which fetch 0.877 francs each, or 200 francs the piece of 228 litres, amounting in all to 1,672 francs. Deducting for expenses and taxes (*contributions*) 572 francs, there remain 1,100 francs of net proceeds; and as the value of the capital may be estimated at 23,000 francs, the profit turns out to be no more than 5 per cent. The net proceeds in the growths of Beaune, Nuits, &c., does not exceed 600 francs per hectare (2.4 acres,) and therefore is equivalent to only 2½ per cent upon the capital.

The quantity of alcohol contained in different wines has been made the subject of elaborate experiments by Brande and Fontenelle; but as it must evidently vary with different seasons, the results can be received merely as

approximate. The only apparatus required for this research is a small still and refrigeratory, so well fitted up as to permit none of the spirituous vapors to be dissipated. The distilled liquor should be received in a glass tube, graduated into one hundred measures, of such capacity as to contain the whole of the alcohol which the given measure of wine employed is capable of yielding. In the successive experiments, the quantity of wine used and of spirit distilled over, being the same in volume, the relative densities of the latter will show at once the relative strengths of the wines. A very neat small apparatus has been contrived for the purpose of analyzing wines in this manner, by M. Gay Lussac. It is constructed and sold at a moderate price by M. Collardeau, No. 56 Rue Faubourg St. Martin, Paris. The proportion given by Brande has been reduced to the standard of absolute alcohol by Fesser; and that by Fontenelle to the same standard by Schubarth; as in the following tables:—

Name of the Wine.	Sp. gravity.	100 measures contain at 60 deg. Fahrenheit.	
		Alcohol of 0.825.	Absolute alcohol.
Port Wine	0.97616	21.40	19.82
Port Wine	0.97200	25.83	23.92
Mean	0.97460	23.49	21.75
Madeira	0.97810	19.34	17.91
Madeira	0.97333	21.42	22.61
Sherry	0.97913	18.25	17.00
Sherry	0.97700	19.83	18.37
Bordeaux, Claret.	0.97410	12.91	11.95
Bordeaux, Claret.	0.97092	16.32	15.11
Calcavella	0.97920	18.10	16.76
Lisbon	0.97846	18.94	17.45
Malaga	0.98000	17.26	15.98
Bucellas	0.97890	18.49	17.22
Red Madeira	0.97899	18.40	17.04
Malmsey	0.98090	16.40	15.91
Marsala	0.98190	15.26	14.31
Marsala	0.98000	17.26	15.98
Champagne, [rose]	0.98608	11.30	10.46
Champagne, [white]	0.98450	12.80	11.84
Burgundy	0.98300	14.53	13.34
Burgundy	0.98540	11.95	11.06
White Hermitage	0.97990	17.43	16.14
Red Hermitage	0.98495	12.32	11.40
Hock	0.98290	14.37	13.31
Hock	0.98873	8.88	8.00
Vin de Grave	0.98450	12.80	11.84
Frontignac	0.98452	17.79	11.84
Cote Roti	0.98495	12.27	11.36
Roussillon	0.98005	17.24	15.96
Cape Madeira	0.97924	18.11	16.77
Muscat	0.97913	18.25	17.00
Constantia	0.97770	19.75	18.29
Tinto	0.98399	13.30	12.32
Schiraz	0.98176	15.52	14.35
Syracuse	0.98200	15.28	14.15
Nice	0.98263	14.63	13.64
Tokay	0.98760	9.88	9.15
Raisin Wine	0.97205	25.77	23.86
Drained grape Wine	0.97925	18.11	16.77
Lachrymæ Christi	19.70	18.24
Currant Wine	0.97696	20.55	19.03
Gooseberry Wine	0.98550	11.84	10.96

Name of the Wine.	Sp. gravity.	100 measures contain at 60 deg. Fahrenheit.	
		Alcohol of 0.825	Absolute alcohol.
Elder Wine	0.98760	9.87	9.14
Cider			
Perry			
Brown Stout	0.99116	6.80	6.80
Ale	0.98873	8.88	8.00
Porter	4.20	3.89
Rum	0.93494	53.68	49.71
Hollands	0.93855	51.60	47.77
Scotch Whisky	54.32	50.20
Irish Whisky	53.90	49.91

ROUSSILLON (EASTERN PYRENEES.

DEPARTMENT OF L'HERAULT.

Name of the Wine.	Years old.	Absolute alcohol.	Name of the Wine.	Years old.	Absolute alcohol.
Rive-saltes.	18	9.156	Nissau	9	7.896
Banyulla	18	9.223	Beziers	8	7.726
Collyouvre	15	9.080	Montagnac	10	8.108
Salces	10	8.580	Meze	10	7.812
			Montpellier	5	7.413
			Lunel	8	7.564
			Frontignan	5	7.098
			Red Hermitage	4	5.838
			White Hermitage	7.056
			Burgundy	4	6.195
			Grave	3	5.838
			Champagne, (sparkling)	5.880
			Champagne, white, (sparkling)	5.145
			Champagne, rose, (sparkling)	4.956
			Bordeaux	6.186
			Toulouse	5.027

DEPARTMENT OF THE AUDE.

The vine is extensively cultivated among the most civilized nations, and has been for thousands of years. Like other plants, the grape has a soil and climate peculiarly adapted to itself. Italy and the Greek islands have been the most distinguished for vineyards, from the earliest ages; next, Egypt and other portions of Africa. In modern times, this culture has become almost equally extensive in France, Spain, and Germany. The following is a table of acres and proportions for the culture of the grape in Europe:—

	Acres in Vineyards.	Proportion of the whole.		Acres in Vineyards.	Proportion of the whole.
Italy	6,000,000	14 per cent.	Bavaria	545,748	2½ per cent.
France	6,425,200	4½	Baden	112,000	3
Austria	4,162,500	2	Wurtemberg ..	78,340	1½
Spain	1,500,000	1½	Russia	54,000	1 1-10

There are in all about twenty millions of acres of land in Europe in the culture of the grape. Much of the territory and provinces employed in vineyards is among the very best on the continent; such, for example, as Northern Italy—the old Lombardy.

Twenty millions of acres of vineyards in Europe produce ninety-four millions of the German *Eimers*, wine measure—about equivalent to 1,504,000,000 of our gallons, which is about seventy-five gallons to the acre. We are unable to say precisely what proportion of profit this would give, but unquestionably at our wine price the profits would be large.

The data we have given above will enable our cultivators to estimate

the general ratio of production in vineyards under favorable circumstances. Columella, the Roman writer on agriculture, made an exact estimate of the profits of seven acres in vines, which has been copied by the historian Rollin. His calculation includes the purchase of a *slave* at 1,000 livres—something less than \$200. This item we may leave out of the account, and substitute the labor of an able-bodied man, which cannot be estimated at less than \$240 per annum. He also estimates the original cost of *land* at \$150, or about \$22 per acre. Some other expenses are added in the *capital* of seven acres, which he makes altogether about \$700, or about \$100 per acre. We shall not pursue the calculation. The result is a *net profit* (above the interest, which is calculated in the expense) of about 787 livres, or 112 livres (about \$20) per acre. If, now, we add to this the six per cent interest, already allowed on the capital, a vineyard in Rome, according to the calculation of Columella, yielded the proprietor 26 per cent. The object of Columella was to prove the cultivation of the grape the most profitable branch of agriculture. All, however, were not of this opinion. Some thought grain the most productive, and others pasturage. In our country there is no question on this subject in regard to large farms and plantations. In them maize (Indian corn) is the great staple of the country on the richest lands.

But in the small tracts there are various articles which may be profitably introduced, and among them the grape. Cincinnati and its neighborhood are on the northern rim of the vine area, but still will be adapted to its culture. Since the successful experiments of Mr. Longworth and others, vineyards are extending with great rapidity; but they will never bear more than a small proportion to the great mass of land in cultivation. For this very reason, the culture is likely to be for many years quite profitable. There are now about 1,300 acres of land in vineyards in the vicinity of Cincinnati. The estimated products of these vines are some three or four hundred thousand gallons. We suppose, however, that this quantity is an exaggeration. The vineyards in the above estimate would not, according to the European average, produce more than 100,000 gallons. In 1849 they were estimated for the census at 50,000 gallons of produce. In the three years since, however, there have doubtless been great advances. Such ardent and successful advocates of the vine as Messrs. Longworth, R. Buchanan, Rehfuß, and others, can scarcely fail to introduce the culture of the grape on a wide scale. The present vineyards are but samples of what will be here in a few years, when the banks of the Ohio will be called the "vine-clad hills."

We now proceed to give some statistics of the imports of wine and spirits into the United States. The following table, derived from official documents laid before the Congress of the United States, exhibits the quantity and value of wines, spirits, etc., imported annually, from June, 1843 to 1853, inclusive. It exhibits, also, the foreign cost per gallon under specific and ad valorem duties.

MADEIRA WINE.

Period of Importation.	Gallons.	Value.	Average cost per gallon.	Duty.
9 months ending June 30, 1843....	3,949	\$9,075	\$2 29.8	Specific.
Year ending June 30.....1844. ..	16,754	30,575	1 82.5	
Do.1845....	101,176	145,237	1 43.5	
Do.1846....	169,797	122,895	1 11.9	
5 months ending Nov. 30, 1846....	117,117	128,613	1 09.8	
7 months ending June 30, 1847....	13,806	5,717	41.4	Ad valorem.

Period of Importation.	Gallons.	Value.	Average cost per gallon.	Duty.
Year ending June 30.....1848....	44,654	\$21,630	\$0 48.4	
Do.....1849....	193,971	105,302	54.3	
Do.....1850....	303,125	150,096	49.51	
Do.....1851....	163,941	116,008	70.76	
Do.....1852....	216,683	103,917	47.95	
Do.....1853....	226,403	105,628	46.65	

SHERRY WINE.

9 months ending June 30, 1843....	4,685	6,491	\$1 38.5	Specific.
Year ending June 30.....1844....	18,665	23,418	1 25.4	
Do.....1845....	23,616	38,289	1 62.1	
Do.....1846....	26,538	41,761	1 57.	
5 months ending Nov. 30, 1846....	14,543	26,194	1 59.5	
7 months ending June 30, 1847....	77,521	56,061	72.3	Ad valorem.
Year ending June 30.....1848....	215,935	109,983	50.9	
Do.....1849....	170,794	128,510	75.2	
Do.....1840....	212,092	118,952	56.08	
Do.....1851....	250,277	154,668	59.65	
Do.....1852....	168,610	97,680	57.93	
Do.....1853....	313,048	155,819	49.77	

SICILY WINE.

9 months ending June 30, 1843....	14,579	6,617	60.6	Specific.
Year ending June 30.....1844....	31,180	15,000	48.1	
Do.....1845....	110,590	46,033	50.4	
Do.....1846....	209,131	74,000	35.4	
5 months ending Nov. 30, 1846....	21,281	8,933	42.	
7 months ending June 30, 1847....	92,631	24,230	26.2	Ad valorem.
Year ending June 30.....1848....	190,294	67,364	35.4	
Do.....1849....	130,851	32,231	24.6	
Do.....1850....	91,123	24,933	27.36	
Do.....1851....	301,010	98,975	32.88	
Do.....1852....	91,746	22,563	24.59	
Do.....1853....	190,205	45,794	24.08	

PORT WINE IN CASKS.

9 months ending June 30, 1843....	38,593	25,714	66.6	Specific.
Year ending June 30.....1844....	223,615	156,878	70.2	
Do.....1845....	260,593	162,358	62.3	
Do.....1846....	372,528	148,895	40.	
5 months ending Nov. 30, 1846....	80,991	62,851	77.6	
7 months ending June 30, 1847....	8,075	3,791	47.	Ad valorem.
Year ending June 30.....1848....	501,123	170,134	34.	
Do.....1849....	711,268	272,700	38.3	
Do.....1850....	626,211	305,454	48.77	
Do.....1851....	762,967	349,849	45.85	
Do.....1852....	614,816	240,238	39.07	
Do.....1853....	662,791	268,005	44.13	

CLARET IN CASKS.

9 months ending June 30, 1843....	873,895	134,598	15.4	Specific.
Year ending June 30.....1844....	993,198	218,239	21.97	
Do.....1845....	1,051,862	249,633	23.73	
Do.....1846....	951,351	249,703	26.24	
5 months ending Nov. 30, 1846....	294,433	111,453	37.85	
7 months ending June 30, 1847....	591,656	119,844	20.26	Ad valorem.
Year ending June 30.....1848....	1,227,071	221,416	18.04	
Do.....1849....	1,912,701	263,836	13.79	
Do.....1850....	1,919,766	267,445	13.93	
Do.....1851....	1,940,121	280,333	14.45	
Do.....1852....	2,702,612	405,380	15.	
Do.....1853....	2,633,802	482,827	18.33	

OTHER RED WINES.

Period of Importation.	Gallons.	Value.	Average cost per gallon.	Duty.
9 months ending June 30, 1843....
Year ending June 30....1844....	340,387	\$60,096	\$0 17.65	Specific.
Do.1845....	495,588	143,210	28.9	
Do.1846....	954,646	316,821	33.19	
5 months ending Nov. 30, 1846....	1,072,589	323,814	30.65	
7 months ending June 30, 1847....	539,454	119,411	22.14	Ad valorem.
Year ending June 30....1848....	781,073	180,928	23.16	
Do.1849....	994,458	221,177	22.24	
Do.1850....	1,469,256	265,988	18.1	
Do.1851....	1,245,201	236,727	19.01	
Do.1852....	1,172,316	229,350	19.56	
Do.1853....	1,374,416	377,482	27.46	

OTHER WHITE WINES.

9 months ending June 30, 1843....	123,832	28,205	22.77	Specific.
Year ending June 30....1844....	268,414	75,090	27.98	
Do.1845....	591,735	211,183	35.69	
Do.1846....	705,808	310,241	43.96	
5 months ending Nov. 30, 1846....	618,267	296,736	48.	
7 months ending June 30, 1847....	278,482	69,831	25.08	Ad valorem.
Year ending June 30....1848....	840,687	193,358	23.	
Do.1849....	971,895	210,139	21.62	
Do.1850....	1,088,801	215,353	19.79	
Do.1851....	1,085,374	209,847	19.33	
Do.1852....	935,379	195,870	20.94	
Do.1853....	1,275,290	305,287	23.94	

BRANDY.

9 months ending June 30, 1843....	191,832	106,267	55.4	Specific.
Year ending June 30....1844....	782,510	606,633	77.52	
Do.1845....	1,081,314	819,540	75.79	
Do.1846....	963,147	839,231	87.13	
5 months ending Nov. 30, 1846....	331,108	355,451	1 07.3	
7 months ending June 30, 1847....	623,309	575,631	92.35	Ad valorem.
Year ending June 30....1848....	1,370,111	1,135,089	82.84	
Do.1849....	2,964,091	1,347,514	65.28	
Do.1850....	4,145,802	2,659,537	64.14	
Do.1851....	3,163,783	2,128,679	67.28	
Do.1852....	2,751,810	1,792,729	65.14	
Do.1853....	3,854,956	3,251,408	84.34	

GRAIN SPIRITS.

9 months ending June 30, 1843....	259,129	121,547	46.91	Specific.
Year ending June 30....1844....	416,918	171,015	41.02	
Do.1845....	606,311	262,543	23.2	
Do.1846....	677,785	345,352	50.95	
5 months ending Nov. 30, 1856....	136,323	86,073	63.14	
7 months ending June 30, 1847....	327,635	143,549	43.81	Ad valorem.
Year ending June 30....1848....	676,683	327,493	48.4	
Do.1849....	796,276	327,957	41.19	
Do.1850....	751,183	361,078	48.07	
Do.1851....	984,417	364,204	36.99	
Do.1852....	865,301	294,386	34.02	
Do.1853....	1,060,456	424,638	40.40	

OTHER SPIRITS.

9 months ending June 30, 1843....	135,899	82,095	23.7	Specific.
Year ending June 30....1844....	210,477	78,027	37.07	
Do.1845....	270,484	78,957	29.12	
Do.1846....	221,344	81,713	36.92	

Period of Importation.	Gallons.	Value.	Average cost per gallon.	Duty.
5 months ending Nov. 30, 1846....	65,477	\$28,862	\$0 44.08	
7 months ending June 30, 1847....	160,747	57,806	35.96	Ad valorem.
Year ending June 30.....1848....	228,671	75,943	33.21	
Do.....1849....	542,492	145,784	26.87	
Do.....1850....	339,169	113,779	33.57	
Do.....1851....	309,214	100,850	32.61	
Do.....1852....	359,677	98,940	27.51	
Do.....1853....	336,477	106,501	31.35	

BEER, ALE, AND PORTER, FROM ENGLAND.

9 months ending June 30, 1843....	62,612	57,098	89.76	Specific.
Year ending June 30.....1844....	107,489	102,157	95.04	
Do.....1845....	79,302	73,729	92.97	
Do.....1846....	117,621	110,397	94.71	
5 months ending Nov. 30, 1846....	46,146	42,987	93.15	
7 months ending June 30, 1847....	132,157	67,395	50.93	Ad valorem.
Year ending June 30.....1848....	130,008	101,171	77.82	
Do.....1849....	146,473	118,233	80.72	
Do.....1850....	156,735	129,957	82.92	
Do.....1851....	275,336	189,010	68.64	
Do.....1852....	262,838	186,964	71.13	
Do.....1853....	397,420	284,347	71.55	

BEER, ALE, AND PORTER, FROM SCOTLAND.

9 months ending June 30, 1843....	7,423	6,335	85.34	Specific.
Year ending June 30.....1844....	19,236	18,343	95.36	
Do.....1845....	26,711	21,294	79.72	
Do.....1846....	38,464	39,831	1 03.55	
5 months ending Nov. 30, 1846....	2,151	1,895	88.1	
7 months ending June 30, 1847....	15,375	8,657	56.31	Ad valorem.
Year ending June 30.....1848....	39,282	21,533	54.05	
Do.....1849....	52,297	30,088	57.53	
Do.....1850....	52,856	41,790	79.07	
Do.....1851....	88,179	56,736	64.34	
Do.....1852....	110,752	67,804	61.22	
Do.....1853....	131,357	77,414	58.93	

The wines chiefly imported into England in casks are Port, Sherry, Madeira, Malaga, Marsala, and Teneriffe; and those in cases Champagne, Claret, Burgundy, Hock, Moselle, and Hermitage. The proportions which each description of wine bears to our total home consumption, of all sorts, for the last three years, is shown by the last parliamentary return, No. 582, the 8th June, 1853:—

	1850.	1851.	1852.		1850.	1851.	1852.
Spanish	38.36	40.33	41.08	Madeira	1.09	1.14	1.10
Portugal	43.73	40.20	39.23	Rhenish	0.85	0.94	0.92
French	5.29	7.12	7.50	Canary	0.25	0.25	0.23
Cape.....	3.82	3.74	3.82	Sicilian, &c.....	6.61	6.28	6.12

During the past year, there has been a rise in prices in all the wine-growing countries, owing to the increased demand from all parts, and especially from Australia. The importations show a decrease, as compared with the preceding year, of 2,215,124 gallons: the total being the smallest that has been known for many years. The deliveries for home consumption, however, presented an increase of 65,408 gallons, and those for export an increase of 120,615. In January, 1853, the stocks in England were lower than for fifteen years, and about 1,000,000 gallons under the average.

**FOREIGN WINES IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM DURING THE YEAR ENDED 5TH
JANUARY, 1853:—**

	Imported.	Exported.	Home cons'mp.
Spanish	3,181,835	865,567	2,606,857
Portugal	2,120,716	384,612	2,489,250
French	575,280	169,595	475,948
Cape	127,952	4,054	242,619
Madeira	141,817	93,075	69,730
Rhenish	70,297	12,238	58,533
Canary	86,819	86,220	14,877
Sicilian, &c.	489,088	186,656	388,147
	<u>6,793,304</u>	<u>1,802,017</u>	<u>6,346,061</u>

IMPORTATION INTO GREAT BRITAIN IN THE FOLLOWING YEARS:—

	Population per Census.	Portugal. Galls.	Spanish. Galls.	All other kinds. Galls.	Total. Galls.
1831.....	24,410,429	2,707,784	2,089,532	1,414,998	6,212,264
1841.....	26,683,286	2,387,017	2,412,821	1,385,122	6,184,960
1848.....	2,446,813	2,435,427	1,254,307	6,136,547
1849.....	2,648,242	2,448,107	1,155,513	6,251,862
1850.....	2,719,661	2,558,395	1,209,646	6,487,702
1851.....	27,619,886	2,614,578	2,669,525	1,270,323	6,554,426
1852.....	2,567,774	2,738,689	1,308,816	6,614,679
.....	<u>18,091,819</u>	<u>17,351,896</u>	<u>8,998,725</u>	<u>44,442,440</u>
Stock in bond, 5th Jan., 1852.		4,476,018	4,416,602	1,753,520	10,646,140
" " 1853.		3,616,867	3,953,867	1,428,106	8,998,840

QUANTITIES REMAINING IN WAREHOUSE UNDER BOND, 5TH JANUARY, 1853.

In London.....galls.	5,450,706	In Liverpool, &c....galls.	3,548,134
Total.....			<u>8,998,840</u>

Home-made wines, termed sweets and cordials, are compounded and retailed by upwards of 5,000 dealers in the kingdom. Last year, 51,151 galls. from Scotland, and 3,432 galls. from Ireland, were imported into England. It was principally brought from Leith, coastwise, to London, Newcastle, and Hull; but 7,222 galls. were brought from Glasgow to Liverpool, and 3,116 galls. from Dublin; besides which, about 2,000 galls. were made in Liverpool by a few resident manufacturers, chiefly for re-exportation.

The Oporto shipping list publishes the names of 60 shippers of wines, in quantities above 100 pipes annually, and the Cadiz shipping list exhibits a similar number. In Liverpool, there are about 150 wine and spirit merchants, 30 of whom are wine merchants only; and, in addition thereto, we have about half a dozen wine and spirit brokers, who operate extensively in their purchases for shipment and export. The merchants sell to the dealers, innkeepers, and private consumers their wines in bottles, packed in hampers and cases, as well as in casks, the weights of which vary according to their size. There are upwards of 150 hotels, inns, and taverns in Liverpool and neighborhood.

No circular or other record of the wine and spirit trade of Liverpool is now kept by any person except for rum; but, through the instrumentality of one of the leading brokers, we have ascertained the imports of 1852—or, rather, an accurate approximation of the total; the statements being

exclusive of brandy and Geneva occasionally imported for immediate shipment, in transit, which indeed ought not to be included, properly speaking, as belonging to the Commerce of the port.

Wines imported into Liverpool during the year 1852: Foreign, 1,304 pipes; 2,840 hhds.; 5,601 quarter casks; 869 octaves = 4,168 pipes; 17,706 cases. Coastwise, 565 pipes; 1,249 hhds.; 704 quarter casks; 175 octaves = 1,387 pipes; 1,968 cases. Total, 5,555 pipes; 19,674 cases.

The cases contain 1 dozen to 3 dozen bottles each; and the total value of wines imported may be estimated at 130,000*l. ex duty*. The weight, 4,500 tons. But to this we must add the average of 10 tons of valuable wines received weekly from London by inland communication—say 500 tons a year, 20,000*l.*

SPIRITS.

Inflammable liquors, in mercantile phraseology, generally comprehend rum, brandy, and Geneva, and British spirits; the three former being foreign productions, and the latter principally whisky and gin, but also British brandy, the manufacture of the United Kingdom; by 230 licensed distillers—167 being in Scotland, 53 in Ireland, and 10 in England.

FOREIGN AND COLONIAL SPIRITS IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM DURING THE YEAR ENDED 5TH JANUARY, 1853:—

	Imported.	Home consump.	Re-exported.
Rumgalls.	5,490,224	2,892,684	2,596,874
Brandy	3,959,452	1,924,395	1,331,193
Geneva	185,356	26,232	133,750
Others	34,573	21,807	69,266
	<u>9,669,605</u>	<u>4,872,118</u>	<u>4,130,023</u>

QUANTITIES REMAINING IN WAREHOUSES UNDER BOND, 5TH JANUARY, 1853.

In London.....galls.	4,097,329	In Liverpool, &c.....galls.	4,377,345
Total			<u>8,474,674</u>

The total number of proof gallons of spirits distilled in the United Kingdom, the quantities delivered duty-paid direct from distillers' stocks, and the quantities put into bond, for the year ending 5th January, 1853, were as follow:—

	Distilled.	Duty-paid.	Bonded.
Scotland.....galls.	9,942,218	3,798,344	6,143,874
Ireland	8,117,708	1,977,704	6,140,004
England.....	6,363,267	6,311,502	51,774
	<u>24,423,202</u>	<u>12,087,550</u>	<u>12,335,652</u>

The number of gallons of these spirits brought into England from Scotland and Ireland last year, were as follow:—

From Scotland.....galls.	2,267,419	From Ireland.....galls.	1,258,993
Total			<u>3,526,412</u>

The above twenty-four millions odd gallons were all whisky, two-fifths of which were conveyed to the rectifying houses, altogether 40 in number, situate in London, Liverpool, Bristol, &c., for re-distillation into gin, Brit-

ish brandy, spirits of wine, anniseed, peppermint, &c. Spirits of all sorts are distributed throughout this country in casks of all sizes, and in earthenware jars of 2 galls. to 6 galls. each; but gin is usually put into puncheons of 100 galls., weighing about 10 cwt.

With respect to foreign spirits, the importations of rum last year show an increase of 744,980 galls. over those of the previous year, whilst in the deliveries there was an improvement of 1,050,315 galls. Brandy, likewise, exhibits an augmentation of 1,028,485 in the imports, and 65,022 in the deliveries. The exports were unusually large, being 286,794 galls. in excess of those of 1851. Of British spirits generally, the consumption was 25,200,879 galls., against 23,976,596 in the preceding year, the chief increase being in Ireland. The British brandy permitted from the rectifiers' stocks of the United Kingdom amounted to 346,818 proof galls.

In the spirit trade of Liverpool, amongst the ordinary mercantile community, rum is the chief feature in the business, it being imported rather extensively from the West Indies. The following imports and stocks appear recorded in the general brokers' circular:—

	Imports.	Stock.
1848.....	11,420 puncheons	7,300 puncheons
1849.....	9,200 "	5,100 "
1850.....	8,695 "	5,400 "
1851.....	9,575 "	6,300 "
1852.....	11,890 "	6,500 "

These puncheons average 84 galls. 9 cwt. each; mean price, ex duty, 2s. 4d. per gall. Therefore, last year's import into Liverpool was equivalent to 5,350 tons in weight, and 100,000*l.* in value.

BRANDY IMPORTED INTO LIVERPOOL IN THE YEAR 1853.

	Pieces.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Total pieces.	Cases.
Cognac.....	931	4,881	5,663	4,762	5,457
Bordeaux.....	85	138	34	163	3,591
Coastwise.....	11	118	109	97	338
Total.....	5,022	9,386

The cases generally contain a dozen bottles each, and their total value, together with the pieces, may be put down at 200,000*l.*, and in weight, 3,000 tons.

GENEVA IMPORTED INTO LIVERPOOL IN THE YEAR 1852.

	Puns.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Total puns.	Cases.
Foreign.....	36	780	127	458	9,084
Coastwise.....	..	7	7	8	43
Total.....	466	9,127

The cases usually are of one dozen bottles each, and their total value, with their puncheons, was about 10,000*l.*, and the weight 750 tons.

The London and Bristol gin, and other spirits, brought by inland carriage to Liverpool, average nearly 2,000 tons in weight per annum.

There are eight distillers and rectifiers of spirits in Liverpool, who receive whisky from Scotland and Ireland for rectification. The trade is an extensive and respectable one. It has been estimated that 800,000 proof galls. of British spirits are rectified in Liverpool annually, and sent out to

supply the adjoining counties, very little in proportion being consumed in the towns, as in seaports rum is generally drank by the lower classes. This manufacture of gin, &c., is equivalent to 4,000 tons in weight, and exceeds 400,000*l.* in value per annum.

Thus we find the total weight and value of the wine and spirit trade of Liverpool to be 20,000 tons and 1,000,000*l.*:—

Foreign wines	tons	5,000	£150,000
Rum		5,350	100,000
Brandy		3,000	200,000
Geneva		750	10,000
British spirits.....		4,000	400,000
From London, &c.....		1,900	140,000
Total.....		20,000	£1,000,000

ALE AND PORTER.

In the Liverpool district, there are 85 brewers, 1,699 victualers, 1,407 persons licensed to sell beer to be drunk on the premises, and 45 not on the premises. The numbers who brew their own beer are 26 victualers, and 23 persons licensed to sell beer to be drunk on the premises, &c. The bushels of malt consumed by each class during twelve months (ending 5th October) were, by the brewers, 790,158; victualers, 21,536; licensed to sell beer, 11,182—total, 829,576 bushels, equivalent to 331,830 barrels, or 66,366 tons, and 829,576*l.* money. The borough of Liverpool contains 60 brewers, 1,470 licensed victualers, and 980 beer-houses. There are, also, 60 ale and porter dealers.

Liverpool is supplied with sweet ales from Edinburgh, Glasgow, Ayr, Stirling, Alloa, &c., &c.; mild ales from Warrington, Bolton, Preston, Wrexham, Llangollen, Drogheda, &c.; bitter and strong ales from Burton-on-Trent; and porter from London, Dublin, Cork, Newry, Belfast, Waterford, &c.; in the aggregate, annually, inclusive of exports and Irish porter forwarded into the country, to the extent of 200,000 barrels, equivalent to 40,000 tons, and worth 500,000*l.*

The exports of ale and beer from the United Kingdom, in 1853, to the East Indies, Australia, United States, West Indies, and other places, amounted to 243,950 barrels, of the declared value of 753,360*l.* The exports from Liverpool, including ships' stores, are on a large scale, amounting to 66,700 barrels, 13,340 tons, 180,000*l.* last year. Ale and porter is received in all sorts of packages—butts, puncheons, hogsheads, barrels, kilderkins, firkins, hampers, &c.

CIDER AND PERRY.

The expressed juice of apples and pears, though much consumed in the western counties of England, is very little drank in Liverpool or that neighborhood, not more than 200 tons a year, 3,750*l.* in value. It is received chiefly from Worcester, in puncheons, hogsheads, barrels, hampers, &c.

HOPS

Are brought to Liverpool by railway from Kent, Sussex, Hereford, and Worcester; generally in pockets of 1½ cwt., and occasionally, but seldom, in bags of 2½ cwt. The receivals last year were 4,000 pockets, weighing 300 tons, value 30,000*l.* The brewers mostly order direct from the factors,

as there are only one or two hop merchants in Liverpool, who are also corn merchants.

The importations of wine into Great Britain, according to recent parliamentary documents, for 1853, amounting to 11,029,567 galls., show the large increase, as compared with the preceding year, of 4,236,263 galls. The deliveries for home consumption were likewise above the average, the increase being 584,941 galls. With respect to spirits, the total importation of rum in 1853 was 4,206,248 galls., showing a decrease of 1,283,976. In the total deliveries, however, which amounted to 5,651,972 galls., there was an increase of 155,414. The returns as to brandy present a large augmentation, the imports having been 5,005,911 galls., against 3,959,452 in the preceding year, while in the home delivery there has been a decrease of 55,052 galls. The exports in this case were again unusually large, having amounted to 2,378,770 galls., or nearly double the exports of 1852, which were also above an average. Of Geneva the shipments have been extremely heavy. Of British spirits generally the consumption shows a trifling decrease.

With regard to the general course of the wine trade, it is remarked that, during the year 1853, there has been a continued rise in price, owing to the extension of the disease in the vines, and that the large importation which has taken place in the face of this circumstance must be regarded, looking at future prospects, as a favorable result of the power of capital in this country in making early and prudent provisions in periods of scarcity.

The following table shows the proportion per cent which each description of wine bears to the total consumption in England of all sorts for the past three years:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.		1851.	1852.	1853.
Cape.....	3.74	3.82	3.92	Madeira	1.14	1.10	1.02
French	7.12	7.50	7.79	Rhenish	0.94	0.92	0.99
Portugal.....	40.20	39.23	38.87	Canary	0.25	0.23	0.28
Spanish	40.33	41.08	39.58	Sicilian, &c.....	6.28	6.12	7.55
					100.00	100.00	100.00

The adulteration of wines and all kinds of spirits is no doubt practised to a great extent; greater, perhaps, than the honest dealer in them has any idea. While preparing the present paper for the press, an article on the subject of adulterations has fallen under our notice. We find it in the *Democracy*, a new and ably managed journal recently established at Buffalo. We cannot vouch for the accuracy of the statements, although the writer quotes some very respectable authorities. For the honor of human nature and mercantile integrity, we hope it is not a faithful picture of the monstrous frauds in the trade. With these statements we close the present paper:—

“BRANDY.—This liquor is almost universally a base imposition. The imported article, as a general fact, is adulterated. Unadulterated brandy cannot be sold at less than about \$2.50 the gallon: the adulterated can be made at about 30 cents per gallon; and so disguised that no one can tell the difference. The dealers cannot, nor do they, resist the temptation to adulterate, where the gain is so enormous. Chemical compounds are now made and sold to fabricators for making spurious brandy out of common whisky; the whisky itself often drugged with arsenic.

"A dealer in spurious brandy recently imported enough of these compounds to manufacture 800 hogsheads of the forged article. He sold it for pure, and at \$2 50 the gallon; making a clear profit, as he confessed, of \$100,000 on the speculation; the fabricated article costing him only about 30 cents a gallon. The fabricator having used up his compound to his samples, took these to a chemist in Massachusetts, for analysis, and for the purpose of having them made in this country, if possible. The chemist made the examination, and found one of the samples a deadly poison: he could not be tempted to have a hand in producing the mixtures. Whether the fabricator found a chemist less honest, or had to wait for a new importation, will not, probably, be known until the day of Judgment, when all such secrets will be made manifest. Who can begin to estimate the results of the use of these 800 casks, on those who, before this time, have probably drunk them?"

"Another man who had either imported or purchased the same kinds of compounds, is now in California with them, and he boasted to a gentleman who mentioned it to the writer, that he should make \$100,000 out of the operation.

"A quantity of French brandy was imported into New York, and advertised for sale at auction, on a given day; it was landed on the wharf. A brandy fabricator purchased the whole lot, of the importer, on the condition that the sale should take place as advertised, *on his account*. During the night it was all removed to his brandy brewery, underwent the process of adulteration, was carted back, and sold next day, *pure as imported*.

"A large dealer in Albany declared that when he purchased foreign liquors in New York, on shipboard, he had no confidence in getting the article purchased, unless he watched the casks from the ship to the boat on the river. In former years it was supposed that imported liquors were generally pure; but now this opinion has exploded. The process of adulteration is carried on to a vast extent in Europe, and it is doubtful whether one gallon in one hundred is landed on our shores in a pure state; and if in a pure state, just so far as it is intoxicating it is worthless and injurious, as a beverage; and none should be drank as such by any human being valuing long life or a healthful body. In a work published by the celebrated chemist, Frederick Accum, on adulteration, and dedicated to the Duke of Northumberland, the practices of brandy, gin, beer and wine fabricators were pretty fully exposed; but as we live in an age of *great progress*, the fabricators of the present day have doubtless entirely eclipsed those of the past. Accum gives the following method of compounding, or *making up*, as it is technically called, *brandy for retail* :—

* To 10 puncheons of brandy.....	1,081 galls.
Add flavored raisin spirit.....	118 "
Tincture of grains of Paradise.....	4 "
Cherry laurel water.....	2 "
Spirit of almond cake.....	2 "
	<hr/>
	1,207

Add also 10 handfuls of oak saw dust, and give it *complexion* with burnt sugar.' The same author, speaking of

"GIN, says, 'To prepare and sweeten gin, etc., oil of vitriol, oil of almonds, oil of turpentine, oil of juniper berries, lime water, alum, salt of tartar, subacetate of lead, are used. Sulphate of lead is poisonous. I have reason to believe the use of it is frequent, because its action is more rapid, and it imparts to the liquor a fine *complexion*; hence some vestiges of lead may often be detected in malt liquor. As with brandy and gin, so with

"RUM. If whisky will sell for more money under the name of *rum* than under the name of *whisky*, it is as easy to turn whisky into rum, as into brandy, gin or wine. We come to

"WINE.—Here the fabricators make their greatest profits, exercise their greatest skill, and probably do the greatest amount of injury. Unadulterated wine, according to its name and quality, must command a certain price to make it

worth dealing in. The fabricator's ingenuity is put to the greatest trial, to produce an article resembling the pure, so as to obtain, as near as possible, the price of pure; and, as it is impossible to distinguish the pure from impure, and as the impure can be made at one-tenth to one-quarter of the value of the pure, the impure, as a natural consequence, *takes the place* of the pure, as the bogus dollar would take the place of the pure silver dollar, provided it was settled by common consent a dollar was a dollar, whether bogus or not.

"Says Dr. Nott, 'I had a friend, who had been once a wine dealer, and having read the startling statements made public, in relation to the brewing of wines, and the adulterations of other liquors, generally, I inquired of that friend as to the veracity of those statements. His reply was, 'GOD FORGIVE *what has passed in MY OWN cellar, but the statements MADE are true and ALL TRUE, I assure you.*'

"The process of adulteration is carried on in wine countries, as well as in this country, with regard to Madeira, Sherry, Claret, and all other kinds of wine.

"The Rev. Dr. Baird has stated that 'little or no wine is drank in France in a pure state, except it may be at the wine press. The dealers purchase it at the vineyards in a pure state, but in their hands it is entirely changed, by adding drugs or distilled spirit.'

"Says Horatio Greenough, the eminent sculptor, 'that although wine can be had in Florence at one cent a bottle, the dealers do not hesitate to add drugs and water, to gain a fraction more of profit.'

"CHAMPAGNE. A man who once worked in the office where this tract is printed, is *now* engaged in making champagne for the ladies and gentlemen of the country, at a cost to him of two dollars the dozen. Some cider or whiskey, some water, some fixed air, some sugar of lead, etc., etc., form the compound. When this fabricated mixture circulates in the country, it is generally sold as pure, and our young men often quaff it, at two dollars the bottle, and an advance on the original cost of only 1,100 per cent!

"A physician in New York purchased a bottle of what was called genuine champagne, of the importers, had it subjected to chemical tests; it was found to contain *a quarter of an ounce of sugar of lead*. Who would like to drink a mixture of sugar of lead and water?

"A gentleman in New York, who made champagne, purchased some, of the regular importer, wishing to give his friends some of the genuine article. At a convivial party, he produced his *pure as imported*; when the corks began to fly, one dropped near him; on examining it, he found it was his own fabrication. The supposed importer had purchased it, and by his French tinsel and French labels, sold it back, as pure, to the original fabricator—*biting the biter*. But enough of champagne: we now come to

"PORT. An Episcopal Clergyman, recently returned from the continent of Europe, visited an immense manufactory of all kinds of wine. Logwood came in as a great ingredient—so great that the proprietors kept a vessel in their employ for its importation.

"The dyers in Manchester (England) say, 'the wine brewers are running away with all the best logwood;' and the London people say, 'If you wish to get genuine *Port*, you must go yourself to Oporto, *make your own wine*, and ride outside of the barrel all the way home.'

We shall resume this subject in a future number of the *Merchants' Magazine*; touching the wine and spirit trade at home and abroad.

ART. III.—THE GENERAL POST OFFICE OF THE UNITED STATES.*

Posts, for public use, are a modern invention. Correspondence is a result of advanced civilization. When the people are enslaved by selfish ignorance, and rarely leave the domestic hearth, the government alone has occasion for writing letters. The earliest attempt at a postal system, of which we have an account, was made by Augustus in the Roman empire. The next is due to Charles V., who instituted a riding post through his vast dominions in Europe, in 1543, over which he appointed Leonard, Count of Thurn and Taxis, his Postmaster General. But posts, in the sense of mounted messengers, for the dispatch of government orders, were in use in Persia, according to Herodotus, as far back as the days of Xerxes and Cyrus. They were also employed at various times by several of the European courts during the middle ages, and in subsequent periods. Foot posts, for similar purposes, were employed by the Incas of Peru at the time of the Spanish invasion.

Posting, as now in use on the continent, embraces, in addition to the transmission of letters and printed matter, the forwarding of travelers and their equipages—the business being monopolized, with one or two exceptions, by the government, and performed with a view to revenue. For this purpose postmasters are required to keep relays of horses at designated stations along the principal lines of travel, to forward travelers at specified rates of speed and fare. Great Britain and the United States are the only modern nations whose mail systems are disconnected with business of this description. As railroads and other traveling facilities multiply in the other European States, it is presumed they will assimilate their postal establishments to those of these countries.

The United States post office—a part of the wise system of government and laws under which we live—may justly be regarded by its citizens with pride. The extent of its ramifications, and the magnitude of its operations, are highly illustrative of the rapid development of our national resources. The tendency of improved and accelerated mails being to bring into close proximity, in point of social intercourse, the inhabitants of widely-separated States, thereby cementing the bonds of the Union, as well as to promote public intelligence and virtue by a rapid diffusion of information and interchange of sympathies, it also constitutes a source of lively gratitude to the Giver of all good. All classes are benefited by its beneficent ministrations. Civilization and social happiness attend its footsteps. Its mission is one of peace and good-will.

The colonial annals, our only source of information in this matter, show no traces of a mail or post office on this side of the Atlantic prior to 1672. In that year Governor Lovelace, of the New York colony, in pursuance of instructions from the mother country, organized a mail, "to goe monthly," between the cities of New York and Boston. Eleven years subsequently the general court of Massachusetts, in session at Boston, on the petition of sundry merchants, appointed John Hayward, the scrivener, postmaster of that place, "to take in letters and convey them according to their direc-

* This valuable and interesting paper was originally prepared for the *Washington Union*, by D. T. LEECH, Esq., of the Post Office Department. We have appended at the close of the article more detailed statistics of the working of the postal system, derived and compiled from the latest official documents—*Editor Merchants' Magazine*.

tions." In 1683 the benevolent William Penn, the proprietary governor of Pennsylvania, appointed Henry Waldy postmaster of Philadelphia, with authority to send a weekly mail to New Castle, Delaware, and "the Falls," the time of departure of which was to be "carefully published on the meeting-house door and in other public places." In 1692 the Virginia assembly granted to Thomas Neal a patent constituting him postmaster general for that colony, and other parts of America, which, however, was never carried into effect in consequence of the dispersed condition of the inhabitants. In 1700, the British government authorized Colonel John Hamilton, of New Jersey, to establish post offices, and organize post-routes in its American colonies for a period of twenty-one years; but his patent for this purpose was abrogated a few years thereafter, owing to the statute of Queen Anne of 1710, consolidating the colonial post office with that of Great Britain and Ireland. The last mentioned date is to be regarded as the commencement of the American post office.

The next event of note in its history was the association with it of that great man Benjamin Franklin, Colonel Spotswood, the British deputy postmaster general for the colonies, having commissioned him postmaster of Philadelphia in 1737. At this date he was the editor of a newspaper on Market street in that city, the circulation and advertisements of which, we learn from his autobiography, were much enlarged by the appointment. On the death of Colonel S. in 1753, the Crown appointed him, jointly with a Mr. William Hunter, to the charge of the colonial establishment. At this time the aggregate length of post road in the country was but 1532 miles, and there was no regular mail except between Boston and Philadelphia, although post-riders went occasionally as far south as Williamsburg, Virginia, sometimes extending their trips to Charleston, South Carolina.

The author of *Poor Richard*—who was no doubt largely indebted to his then brilliant European reputation as a philosopher for this official elevation—proved, as might have been anticipated, active and efficient in his new position. He tells us in his life that, in 1763, in company with an invalid daughter, he traveled five months on a tour for the inspection of his northern post offices; also, that he effected such improvements in the service as to enable the citizens of Philadelphia to write to Boston and get replies in three weeks, instead of six, the time previously required. Owing to a "freak of ministers," as he styles the proceeding, he was removed from the office in 1774, at which date the British institution on this side of the water may be considered as broken up.

On the 26th of July of next year (1775) the great men composing the Colonial Congress, at its second session, held in the State house at Philadelphia, resolved to have a postal establishment of their own, and thereupon unanimously elected Dr. Franklin as its chief—an appointment, it is presumable, far more acceptable to the patriot than the one of which he had so unceremoniously been deprived. Contemporaneous resolves of this venerable convention show that they invested him with a very unlimited discretion in regard to the management of the institution. It appears, however, that he vacated the position soon after, in consequence, it is supposed, of being called to higher trusts, and that Congress, in November, 1776, appointed as his successor his son-in-law and assistant in the office, Richard Bache.

On the adoption of the articles of confederation by the colonies in 1778,

the Confederate Congress passed resolutions setting forth the importance of the establishment, and their exclusive right to establish post offices and post routes. On the 28th of January, 1782, the same body elected Ebenezer Hazard, who had acted as an inspector of the posts, and in that capacity had rendered important service, postmaster general to succeed Mr. Bache. The records of the time furnish but meagre details as to the operations of the concern during the official terms of those gentlemen, a period of over twelve years. Owing to the stagnation of business, resulting from the war of the revolution, and the consequent inactivity of correspondence, its energies slumbered, as is shown by the fact that its gross yearly receipts averaged but about \$30,000 per annum—a sum inferior to the product of a third-class city office at the present time. Other causes are believed to have contributed to this inefficiency, among which may be set down its exorbitant tariff of postages, and its inability, without the consent of the individual colonies, to arrest and punish mail-robbers and other offenders against its laws. A more potent authority than that of the Confederate Congress was required to impart to it due vigor. The constitutional government, which went into effect in 1789, supplied this.

In September of that year Washington commissioned Samuel Osgood, previously a delegate in Congress from Massachusetts, to administer the office, which was then located in the city of New York, it having been customary to keep it where that body held its sessions. Thence it was taken to Philadelphia, in December, 1790, from which place it was removed to Washington, with the other executive bureaus, in 1802. I insert here the names of the individuals who have presided over the establishment since the organization of the federal government, and the dates of their appointment:—

Samuel Osgood, of Massachusetts, September 26, 1789.

Timothy Pickering, of Pennsylvania, August 12, 1791.

Joseph Habersham, of Georgia, February 25, 1795.

Gideon Granger, of Connecticut, November 28, 1801.

Return J. Meigs, of Ohio, March 17, 1814.

John McLean, of Ohio, June 26, 1823.

William T. Barry, of Kentucky, March 9, 1829.

Amos Kendall, of Kentucky, May 1, 1835.

John M. Niles, of Connecticut, May 25, 1840.

Francis Granger, of New York, March 6, 1841.

Charles A. Wickliffe, of Kentucky, September 13, 1841.

Cave Johnson, of Tennessee, March 5, 1845.

Jacob Collamer, of Vermont, March 7, 1849.

Nathan K. Hall, of New York, July 20, 1850.

S. D. Hubbard, of Connecticut, September 14, 1852.

James Campbell, of Pennsylvania, March 8, 1853.

It will be seen that Gideon Granger and Return J. Meigs, together, held office about twenty-two years, and that the combined term of Messrs. Niles, Francis Granger, and Hubbard was less than two years.

When the new government commenced operations there were but seventy-five post-offices in the Union, and only 1,875 miles of post-road, made up of a seaboard line, through the principal towns between Wiscasset, in Maine, and Savannah, in Georgia, and a few intersecting cross posts, on much of which the mails were conveyed but once a fortnight. The entire annual revenue of the office was \$37,395, and its expenditures \$32,140. The following is an exhibit of its subsequent progress:—

Year.	Post Offices.	Post road, Miles.	Annual cost of transportation.	Receipts.	Expenditures.
1790.....	75	1,875	\$22,081	\$37,935	\$32,140
1795.....	453	13,207	75,359	160,620	117,893
1800.....	903	20,817	128,644	280,804	213,994
1805.....	1,558	31,076	239,635	421,373	377,867
1810.....	2,300	36,406	327,966	551,684	495,969
1815.....	3,000	43,748	487,779	1,043,065	748,121
1820.....	4,500	72,492	782,425	1,111,927	1,160,926
1825.....	5,677	94,052	785,646	1,306,525	1,229,043
1830.....	8,450	115,176	1,272,156	1,919,300	1,959,108
1835.....	10,770	112,774	1,533,222	3,152,376	2,585,108
1840.....	13,468	155,739	3,213,042	4,543,522	4,718,236
1845.....	14,183	143,940	2,898,630	4,439,842	4,320,731
1850.....	18,417	178,672	2,965,786	5,499,985	5,212,953
1853.....	22,320	217,743	4,495,068	5,940,725	7,982,757

This statement makes it clear that a galvanic energy seized the establishment under its new control, its receipts having run up in the next fifteen years to more than half a million of dollars, and its expenditures to nearly as much. The entire results to the present show a development which the eminent forecast of Franklin probably never anticipated. Should its operations continue to enlarge in a like ratio during the next fifty years, how immense will be its ramifications, how stupendous its blessings to the teeming millions destined to inhabit our wide-spread borders at the opening of the coming century!

The mails have increased correspondingly. Fifty years ago but a few pounds of matter were sent in the largest mails; and only thirty years back the boot of a four-horse coach would hold the heaviest out-going mail at the city of New York, whereas at present several tons of mail matter leave that place daily for each of the cardinal points of the compass. Probably more than 100,000,000 of letters, and over 130,000,000 of newspapers and pamphlets, pass through the United States post-offices annually. The free matter of Congress and the executive departments, sent and received through the Washington city post-office three years ago, (doubtless much greater now,) was estimated by its postmaster at 600 tons per annum, the income from which, if taxable with postage, even at the present low rates, would have been \$892,960. The quarterly returns of postmasters received at the department alone amount to one thousand bushels in a year.

Few striking occurrences are recorded in the annals of the infant establishment during the official terms of Messrs. Pickering, Habersham, and Gideon Granger, which lasted from 1791 to 1814. That they were talented men is made apparent by their reports to Congress. The postal laws underwent a number of important revisions at their suggestions; and the above table shows that the mail service was vastly extended during the period. The last-mentioned gentleman, in a report made to Congress in 1810, complacently stated that a great increase of expedition had been given to the mails in the previous eleven years. He illustrated this by the following comparative statement of the times required at the two periods to dispatch letters and get answers:—

Portland to Savannah and back, in 1799, forty days; in 1810, twenty-seven.

Philadelphia to Lexington, Ky., and back, in 1799, thirty-two days; in 1810, sixteen.

Philadelphia to Nashville and back, in 1799, forty-four days; in 1810, thirty.

New York to Canandaigua and back, in 1799, twenty days; in 1810, twelve.

The present schedule time—thanks to the inventors of steamboats and railroads—stands thus:—

Portland to Savannah and back, 9 days.

Philadelphia to Lexington and back, 7 days.

Philadelphia to Nashville and back, 8 days.

New York to Canandaigua and back, 1 day.

In the early part of the same year, Mr. G. complained to Congress that he was cramped for office room. The building known as "The Hotel," situated on the site of the present establishment, was therefore purchased for its use, at a cost of \$10,000—rather an insignificant sum contrasted with the expense of the splendid structure occupied by the office since 1841, \$600,000. In The Hotel building alluded to were crowded also the city post-office and the patent office.

In 1815 fifty per cent increase was made, by direction of Congress, in the postage rates, to aid in defraying the expenses of the war of that period. This was taken off the next year.

In 1825, during the official term of that eminent postmaster-general, Mr. McLean, a revised postal act, which remains at the present time the fundamental law of the department, was passed by the national legislature. Its details seem so plain on perusal, as not to have required great skill or legal knowledge on the part of its framers, yet it had taken an experience of forty years, and numerous revisions, to perfect it.

Tantæ molis erat Romanam condere gentem.

Previous to this period, postmasters had transmitted their revenues to headquarters in bank-notes, sometimes substituting certificates of deposit. The assistant postmaster-general who received, also disbursed these monies, so that he was without effective check. This was obviously a cumbersome and hazardous mode of procedure; and it is exceedingly creditable to the accuracy and honesty of Abraham Bradley, who discharged the duty for more than a quarter of a century, that no serious losses occurred within the period. Mr. McLean improved the system by paying his contractors, to a large extent, in drafts on the postmasters on their routes. Mr. Barry, his successor, ameliorated the matter further, by directing the postmasters to remit their balances, in all cases, in certificates of deposit, instead of bank-notes, and that no funds should be paid out at the department except through checks signed by two of its officers, acting separately, and each certifying to the correctness of the act.

During the six years—1829 to 1835—of the administration of Mr. Barry—the first chief of the establishment who took a seat in the President's cabinet—numerous improvements and great extensions were made in the postal service. For many of these he ordered large extra allowances to contractors, owing to which the establishment was unable to meet its engagements without a resort to loans from banks. This resulted in a tedious investigation of its affairs by a congressional committee. President Jackson in consequence transferred Mr. B. to a sphere of duty calling for less financial ability, and placed in the postal chair Amos Kendall, a

man of singular clearness of intellect, fine administrative qualifications, and Herculean energy, who immediately set on foot measures destined promptly to elevate the credit and relieve the embarrassments of the institution.

We now arrive at an important epoch in the history of the establishment, viz., its reorganization under the act of July 2, 1836, on a plan suggested by Mr. K. Prior to this date, the postmaster-general had practically combined in himself the three functions of making contracts for the service, adjusting the accounts originating under the same, and paying the money. This system—if system it can be called—not only imposed on him a greater amount of labor than any single individual could properly perform, but was entirely at variance with that adopted for the War and Navy departments, as well as unsafe—it being a recognized principle with regard to government finances, that a public officer who has an agency in making contracts should have no connection with the settlement of claims arising under the same. The law of 1836 referred to, vested the settling duty in an officer styled Auditor, who was to be directly responsible to the Secretary of the Treasury, although charged to make periodical reports to, and receive instructions from the Postmaster-General, in regard to sundry particulars bearing on the condition and mode of conducting the business of his office. This officer being competent to refuse the payment of illegal claims, although directed by the Postmaster-General to be allowed, constitutes, it will be seen, a salutary check on the latter functionary.

In December, 1836, the department was destroyed by fire. Its books and papers suffered but little damage in consequence.

On the 7th of July, 1838, Congress enacted its first statute on the subject of that very valuable, but very expensive class of service—railroad—by declaring all such roads to be post-routes, and directing the Postmaster-General to have the mails conveyed upon them, provided he could do so on reasonable terms, and within limits prescribed by the act. This opened a new era in mail communication.

I insert here an exhibit of the amount and cost of this class of service, as well as of steamboat, at several subsequent dates:—

RAILROAD.			STEAMBOAT.		
Year.	Length. Miles.	Annual cost.	Year.	Length. Miles.	Annual cost.
1843.....	3,714	\$531,752	1843.....	5,792	\$264,773
1845.....	4,092	562,141	1845.....	7,625	279,307
1846.....	4,462	587,769	1846.....	8,373	229,464
1847.....	4,735	597,921	1847.....	8,856	236,743
1848.....	4,957	584,192	1848.....	8,280	262,019
1849.....	6,138	635,740	1849.....	10,169	278,650
1850.....	7,190	818,227	1850.....	10,826	313,943
1851.....	8,216	985,019	1851.....	13,411	421,692
1852.....	11,172	1,275,520	1852.....	13,785	505,815
1853.....	13,412	1,601,329	1853.....	16,329	560,572

To show the full cost of this service, a heavy sum is to be added for route agency and mail messenger duty, made necessary in consequence.

It will be perceived from this statement that railroad transportation has enlarged of late far more rapidly than steamboat, it having nearly quadrupled in ten years; also, that the expense for each mile of the former is about quadruple that of the latter.

Should this species of service continue to multiply in any such ratio for

the next ten years—its present cost amounting to about one-third of the department's entire postage revenue—it is quite apparent that, at the rates of pay now allowed the companies, its entire income from that source will be required for that single item of expenditure.

March 3, 1845, is a notable day in the annals of the office, in consequence of the passage by Congress on that date of four acts materially affecting its policy. The first of these made it the duty of the Postmaster-General, at all future lettings of contracts, to award the acceptances without other reference to the mode of transportation than might be necessary to the *due celerity, security, and certainty* of the mails. The second directed him to arrange the railroad routes under three classes, according to their respective importance as channels of mail communication, and prescribed a limit of compensation for each class. The third authorized him to contract, for periods not exceeding ten years, for transportation of the mails to any foreign port, giving the preference to the tenders of persons proposing to perform the service in steamships suitable for vessels-of-war, and claimable by government when needed for that purpose, at valuation. The fourth abolished the franking privilege, and adopted, for the first time in the history of the establishment, a scale of letter postage based on weight—the just method—reducing the charge for a single letter, (limited to half an ounce,) going not over 300 miles, to five cents, and ten cents for greater distances. It also prescribed an improved scale for newspapers and other printed matter, allowing the former to go postage-free to subscribers within 30 miles of the place of publication. Let us notice each of these enactments more particularly.

The one in regard to the mode of letting the mail contracts was designed to aid the department in carrying into successful execution the reduced postage tariff referred to, by preventing the application of any of its funds to the maintenance of mail-coach lines for the benefit of the traveling community. That it is serviceable in reducing the expense of transportation, is shown by the fact that during the first four years of its operation—1845 to 1849—the curtailment under that head amounted to \$328,000, although the post-roads were extended within the period 23,763 miles. Owing, however, to the latitude of construction of which the terms “due celerity, certainty, and security of the mail,” are susceptible, and difficulties connected with its execution, the principle embodied in this statute has not been stringently enforced in all cases.

The act concerning the classification of the railroad pay has materially aided the department in resisting exorbitant demands for such service. But, in view of the rapid augmentation of this class of contracts, and the large decline in its revenue under the present cheap rates of postage, it is obvious that the limits fixed thereby (ranging from fifty to three hundred dollars a mile per annum for length of road) are more liberal than the establishment will be able hereafter to measure up to, without leaning upon the national treasury—a recourse pointed out as objectionable by reasons of the most weighty character. The companies could not consistently, under the circumstances, complain if Congress should pass a more restrictive statute on the subject, because the conveyance of the mails does not materially increase their expenditures, while their stockholders, and the communities along their lines, are furnished thereby with important social, intellectual, and commercial advantages. A generous public spirit should dispose these gentlemen to forward the mails at prices merely remunerative.

The enactment in regard to foreign mails seems to have been intended by the national legislature as an incipient step towards the creation of a steam navy, in imitation of a policy extensively pursued in late years by Great Britain—the national defence and the protection of Commerce in the emergency of a foreign war being the principal objects in view, the conveyance of the mails being subordinate. A fresh impulse was given to the enterprise by the act of March 3, 1847, instructing the Secretary of the Navy to contract for the transportation of the mails between New York and Liverpool, and between New York, New Orleans, Aspinwall, San Francisco, and Astoria, in steamers constructed on the plan, and tendered by the owners on the conditions, above referred to, as contained in the statute of 1845. To aid in carrying these laws into effect, as well as the first contract made under their provisions, (New York to Bremen-haven, in Germany,) Postmaster-General Johnson, in the summer of 1847, dispatched to Europe his accomplished first assistant, S. R. Hobbie, Esq., with authority to enter into international postal arrangements, who succeeded in effecting a treaty with one of the German States on terms very favorable to the citizens of this country. Under its articles, the city of Bremen, with which we have an extensive Commerce, and which is closely connected with St. Petersburg, Vienna, Trieste, and other important cities on the continent, by railroads and other traveling lines, became the trans-Atlantic exchange office for all mails sent by the new ocean line. The rates of postage adopted, which have since been largely reduced, curtailed one-half the previous expense for correspondence, and had the further merit of being left optional as to prepayment. The citizens of the United States and the thirty millions of Germany were thus enabled to correspond with each other without serious impediment. Both in a social and commercial point of view this was a convention of vast importance. Postal treaties have since been effected with Great Britain and Prussia, and others are contemplated with France and Belgium. By virtue of the British treaty, their citizens and ours can exchange letters and newspapers with each other as conveniently as with those of their own countries. It also secures to the citizens of the United States wishing to forward correspondence to the ports of the most distant nations the benefits of the extensive mail packet system of that enlightened nation, the vessels of which convey regular mails to all parts of the civilized world. Under the articles of this treaty our department now dispatches by the British steamers mail packages to all prominent ports in the West Indies, and on the northern and western coasts of South America. The Prussian treaty provides for a semi-weekly closed mail, which is sent by the British and American steamers, *via* England and Belgium. The cost of transmitting letters under these conventions (varying from ten to twenty-four cents for a single letter) is considerably greater than the spirit of the age, or the public convenience and necessities, make desirable; yet, in view of their effect upon our national reputation, the great intellectual, social, religious, and commercial benefits secured by them, and their utility in diffusing a knowledge of our free political institutions among the misruled multitudes of the old world, it would be difficult to overrate their importance. It is proper to add that an arrangement has been made by Judge Campbell with the owners of a line of clipper ships for a monthly conveyance of letters to Australia at two cents each for the ocean postage, which, it is hoped, will prove the entering wedge to a series of improvements of that class.

The United States government has under contract at present the following ocean routes, at an annual expense of about two millions of dollars, three-fourths of which is defrayed by the Navy Department:—

	Miles.
New York to Bremenhaven, <i>via</i> Southampton.....monthly trips	3,760
" Havre, <i>via</i> Cowes.....	3,270
" Liverpoolsemi-monthly trips	3,100
" Aspinwall, New Grenada.....	2,000
" New Orleans, <i>via</i> Havana.....	2,000
New Orleans to Aspinwall.....	1,400
" Vera Cruz, Mexico.....	950
Charleston to Havana.....	669
Panama to Astoria, <i>via</i> San Francisco.....	4,200
Total.....	21,349

The portion of the postage act of 1845 abolishing the franking privilege resulted in the resignation of one-third of all the postmasters in the Union in about twenty months. It operated with peculiar hardship on that class of officers, owing to the fact that their commissions were virtually diminished by the same bill in proportion to the decrease in their postage receipts which resulted from its passage.

From 1792 to 1845 the charge on a single letter—limited to one piece of paper—had ranged from six to twenty-five cents, under a graduated table of distances, and that on newspapers had stood at one cent for distances not over 300 miles, and one and a half cents for greater ones. The new tables of the latter year, while they made several changes calculated greatly to enlarge the circulation of newspapers and other printed matter, did not materially diminish the rates therefor. The decrease in the charge for letters, although not equal to that since effected, was a vast contribution to the convenience and happiness of the public, because it lessened the tax on an article which may properly be regarded in the present age as one of the necessities of life. Under its operation the receipts for printed matter steadily advanced, whereas those for letters suffered a great decline during the first year, but partially recovered during the second, and steadily advanced thereafter.

On the second of March, 1847, Congress restored the franking privilege to all postmasters receiving a compensation not exceeding \$200 a year. On the 3d of the same month that body authorized the issue of stamps for the prepayment of postage—a facility since so much resorted to that the sales of them amounted during the last fiscal year to \$1,629,262. In the course of the same year the department extended its mail service over Texas. The act of August 4, 1848, directed a similar step in reference to California and Oregon.

In the summer of 1849 the clerical force of the General Post Office was considerably enlarged. This has stood at various periods thus: In 1795, four clerks; in 1810, twelve; in 1820, twenty-one; in 1830, forty-eight; in 1835, ninety-two; in 1840, ninety-five; in 1850, one hundred and thirty-eight; in 1853, one hundred and eighty-two. At first blush the increase in latter years would seem to exceed the ratio of enlargement of the service. But it is to be borne in mind that as the business of the establishment extends, and becomes complicated, new classes of entries and records are made necessary to furnish an adequate system of checks and references; also that the frequent alterations in the rates of postage

and commissions of postmasters authorized within the last ten years have operated to throw an immense amount of labor on its different bureaus.

The postage tariff of 1845 having proved popular and successful, Congress, on the 3d of March, 1851, in accordance with the suggestions of that very efficient Postmaster General, N. K. Hall, (whose motto seemed to be *omni homines qui sese student præstare cæteris animalibus summa opiniti decet*.) further reduced the rate for single letters, prepaid, to three cents, for distances not over 3,000 miles, and largely diminished that for newspapers, pamphlets, etc., sent to regular subscribers, but increased the charge on transient papers. The last-mentioned feature made the newspaper change obnoxious to the public, while the postmasters were dissatisfied because that portion of the bill varied the rates by a graduated scale of distances, which multiplied their labor. To remedy these defects, a new table for printed matter was adopted by Congress on the 30th of August, 1852, discarding the objectionable features referred to, as well as reducing the already cheap rates for such matter one-half, when pre-paid quarterly or yearly. The effects upon the revenue resulting from the bills of 1845, 1851, and 1852, are exhibited by the following figures for the fiscal year ending—

June 30, 1840, letter postage,	\$4,073,776	newspaper postage,	\$535,520
Do. 1845, do.	3,666,231	do.	608,765
Do. 1846, do.	2,881,697	do.	652,142
Do. 1847, do.	3,198,957	do.	643,160
Do. 1848, do.	3,340,301	do.	767,334
Do. 1849, do.	3,882,762	do.	819,016
Do. 1850, do.	4,575,663	do.	919,486
Do. 1851, do.	5,369,242	do.	1,035,131
Do. 1852, do.	4,226,792	do.	789,246
Do. 1853, do.	4,473,227	do.	611,333

This, it must be granted, is not a favorable showing for the two last-mentioned acts; but as it is an admitted principle that increased postal facilities stimulate correspondence, as well as the circulation of newspapers, it is presumable that, as the resources of the nation become developed, and the people become accustomed to cheap postage, there will be a partial, if not an entire, recovery in the matter. But, disregarding hypothesis, considerations connected with the contentment, cultivation, and convenience of the masses—important elements in the pyramid of national strength—clearly prohibit any retrograde movement on the subject.

Prior to 1825 an annual revenue from the establishment to the United States treasury seems to have entered largely into the policy of the Postmasters General, as will be perceived from the following statement of net profits paid over by them at periods when it was yet in its infancy:—

Pickering—December, 1793, to March, 1795.....	\$47,499
Habersham—June, 1795, to September, 1801.....	\$63,310
G. Granger—December, 1801, to December, 1813.....	291,579
Meigs—March, 1814, to June, 1823.....	387,209
McLean—July, 1823, to December, 1828.....	13,466

Mr. McLean avowed it as his policy—obviously a good one—to keep the funds of the concern in active use in the extension and improvement of the routes, and his successors have generally pursued a similar course. Indeed, for the last twenty-five years, Congress, the Postmaster General, and the public, seem to have coincided in the view that the establishment

should simply be self-sustaining, neither running in debt or aiming at profits. But within a very recent date a few well-meaning people, moved by a wish to have the postage rates further cheapened, or to have more liberal rates of pay made to the railroad companies, have manifested a willingness to cast it to a considerable extent for support on the public treasury—a policy both impolitic and unnecessary: *impolitic* because it is unjust to tax those of our citizens who seldom write letters for the correspondence of those who write many, and because the making the office depend on its own revenues for means to defray its expenditures has a potent tendency to create a watchful economy in its disbursements; *unnecessary*, because if Congress will compensate it, at the regular rates of postage, for the free matter sent through the mails, (say to the amount of a million and a half of dollars per annum,) will restrict by statute the railroad pay to rates barely remunerative, and will place the expense of the ocean contracts—at least so much of it as is not returned in postages—upon the Navy Department; also, if future Postmasters General shall (as I am confident the present one intends doing) rigidly execute the requirement of the act of 1845, in regard to the mode of letting the contracts, there is little reason to doubt its ability to defray, unaided, its current engagements, as well as to make all needful enlargements and improvements in the service. During the few years just past the organization of foreign routes, the extension of the inland ones over an immense amount of new territory, and the rapid augmentation of the railroad service, have vastly enlarged the department's outlays. A further increase under these heads may be anticipated. Yet it will be able, I am quite sure, on the conditions specified, to pay its own way, without leaning upon the national exchequer. To the weak argument, often made, that the post office may as properly be thrown upon the government treasury for support as the War and Navy Departments, I have only to remark, that the former has a current revenue on which to lean, whereas the latter have no such resource.

The public are daily made familiar, to a greater or less degree, through contact with postmasters, mail-carriers, and other agents of the institution, with its external operations; but with its internal organization, constituting the main-spring and balance-wheel that move and regulate all its outer movements, they know but little. A few remarks on this head.

The General Post Office is located in a beautiful marble edifice, built in Corinthian style, 204 feet in length, with wings 116 feet deep; situated half way between the Capitol and the President's House, on a gentle elevation, looking southerly towards the beautiful Potomac, about a mile distant. The department proper, including the Postmaster General, his three assistants, and 79 clerks, occupies the western portion and wing; the Auditor, with 103 clerks, the eastern. To the Postmaster General is intrusted by the constitution and laws, its executive, or administrative management. His principal functions are to establish post offices, appoint postmasters, provide for the conveyance of the mails, exercise a general superintendence over the collection and disbursement of its funds, and make reports to Congress and the President of the state of its affairs. His assistants and clerks share no part of his authority, but are merely his ministerial agents to perform services which he has not time to attend to in person. The preparation of cases for his decision he commits to four distinct bureaus, styled appointment, contract, finance, and inspection,

supervised respectively by an assistant or the chief clerk. The Bureau of Appointment, under charge of the First Assistant, Horatio King, Esq., aided by sixteen clerks, investigates all cases having reference to the establishment and discontinuance of post offices, and the appointment or removal of postmasters and route agents. The Contract Bureau, superintended by W. H. Dundas, Esq., the second assistant, who has 24 clerks, attends to the arranging, advertising, and placing under contract the mail-routes, as well as altering the service on them, from time to time, as the public wants may require. It has also in charge the mail-messenger arrangements. The Bureau of Finance, under the supervision of the Third Assistant, John Marron, Esq., assisted by 21 clerks, manages so much of the fiscal operations of the establishment as the law does not devolve upon the Auditor. It prescribes the mode in which the postmasters shall pay over their balances, makes drafts for the collection and transfer of its funds, and issues warrants on the treasury to pay balances reported by the Auditor to be owing. This office also receives the quarterly returns of postmasters, and has charge of all business relating to dead letters and the issue of postage stamps. The Inspection Bureau, under the care of the chief clerk, John Oakford, Esq., aided by sixteen clerks, examines all reports from postmasters and others touching the performance of mail contractors, with a view to holding them to a faithful compliance with their obligations. It also makes periodical reports to the Auditor of all deductions from their pay for delinquent performance, and takes cognizance of all matters connected with mail depredations and the issuing of mail-bags.

The office of the Auditor, which is not a bureau of the Post-Office Department, as above stated, but of the Treasury Department, collects debts due to the establishment, adjusts and settles the accounts of its mail contractors, postmasters, and other agents, and generally all claims originating under orders of the Postmaster-General. No other executive office at Washington can compare with it in amount of labor. It numbers 103 clerks, appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury, classed as follows:—pay clerks 12, examiners of postmaster's returns 44, book-keepers 11, registers 8, collection clerks 18, miscellaneous 10.

The following individuals have presided over this great bureau since its organization, viz.:—

Charles K. Gardner, appointed July 2, 1836; Elisha Whittlesey, appointed March 19, 1841; M. St. C. Clarke, appointed December 20, 1843; Peter G. Washington, appointed March 29, 1845; J. W. Farelly, appointed November 5, 1849; W. F. Phillips, appointed April 7, 1853.

Messrs. Whittlesey and Washington proved very efficient officers. The latter made valuable improvements in the mode of arranging and preserving its books and papers.

The department's agents, independent of an army of post-riders and clerks in post-offices, number nearly thirty thousand, embracing 22,320 local postmasters, 209 traveling ones, (route agents on railroad lines,) 5,500 mail contractors, 900 mail messengers, (employed at railroad depots and steamboat landings,) 18 special and 26 local agents. Its inland mail routes are divided into four geographical sections, and let to service for periods of four years. One of the sections being placed under contract each spring, the entire circle is kept in constant motion. Of the Postmasters, those whose offices produce a revenue of \$1,000 a year, of which there are 258, are appointed by the President and Senate, the others by the Postmaster-General. For the convenience of the contract and account-

ing business, the offices are further classified under the following denominations, viz.: distribution, special, collection, draft, and deposit. The peculiar duty of the distributing portion, which are usually located at the gateways of States, or other large mail districts, is to consolidate, assort, and dispatch by the most direct lines the packages coming to them from different quarters. The special offices, exceeding 3,000, are generally situated in retired locations, off any public route, and have to pay for their mail supplies out of what they make. Those styled collection—over 17,000—are under instructions to hand their revenues quarterly to the contractors furnishing them with the mail. The draft offices—about 1,000—are directed to retain their postages to meet special drafts made on them, by the authorities at Washington. Those denominated deposit, nearly as many—place their balances periodically in designated depositories.

The present energetic postal chief and his able assistants manifest a commendable solicitude to infuse the utmost practical vitality into every branch of the business intrusted to their supervision. The office of Postmaster-General, although connected with much power and patronage, has peculiar trials, owing to the fact that no man, however well-meaning and sagacious, can dispense this patronage to the satisfaction of all, or, however watchful and energetic, prevent, amid the multitude of agents attached to the postal service, numerous daily deficiencies and malpractices in duty, which give rise to much public annoyance, and bring down on the head of the department loud complaints, both on the part of the press and of individuals. The fact that Judge Campbell took charge of the establishment at a period when its expenditures considerably exceeded its revenues, whereby he is precluded from giving effect to many meritorious applications from different sections of the Union for increase of mail facilities, must have augmented the ordinary difficulties of the position.

Several reports from the department to Congress within a few years past have alluded to serious defects in our postal system—particularly its arrangements for mail billing, mail distribution, and securing the accountability of postmasters. In a small, compactly settled country, like Great Britain, from which we derived our theory on these subjects, it is easy to apply a proper corrective, which was accordingly done there a few years ago. But owing to the widely-scattered condition of the population of the United States, and the constant changes going on in the locations of its post-offices and the direction of its routes, insurmountable obstacles have opposed themselves to all plans suggested for reforming the matter on this side of the Atlantic. A serious additional impediment to the efficiency of the American office grows out of the fact that it has not, in all cases, as the British and French postal departments have, entire control over the times of arrival and departure of the railroad mails.

Notwithstanding, however, this opening for improvement, the operations of the General Post-Office constitute, as hinted in the outset of this article, on account of their vigor and magnitude, a subject for general congratulation. The New York evening papers are perused the next afternoon in Cleveland, Ohio, and in Weldon, North Carolina—the former 671 and the latter 451 miles distant; and the following day in Chicago and Charleston. Similar instances of celerity in the dispatch of the mail-bags in other quarters of the country are numerous. Almost the entire distance from Maine to Texas, and from Massachusetts to Iowa, immense quantities of letters and printed matter are daily forwarded by its agencies with all the velocity attainable by the iron horse and steamboat paddle. A regular mail con-

veyance, by coach and horseback, is made once a month from the banks of the Rio Grande to those of the Missouri, about 2,000 miles, through districts till recently settled only by half-breed Indians and imbecile Mexicans. From the latter point the post-riders again periodically take up the line of march another 2,000 miles over boundless uncultivated prairies and gigantic mountain ranges, rarely trodden except by the foot of the red man, to our remote possessions on the Pacific, fructifying the soil in their passage with the seeds of intellectual, social, and moral culture, as well as potentially aiding to dispel the gloom of savage barbarity. The railroad and steamboat lines conveying the department's mails, if formed into a single route, would girdle the globe; and its ocean routes, if united in like manner, would nearly encompass it again. The tide of enlightened political sentiment wafted to the Old World by the latter promises a mightier influence in emancipating its masses from the thralldom of despotic civil institutions than revolutionary bayonets or imperial armies ever effected.

The following table shows the amounts actually credited for the transportation of the mails, by States and Territories, and the amount of postages collected in the same:—

States and Territories.	Letter postage.	Newspaper postage.	Stamps sold.	Total postage collected.	Transportation.
Maine	\$68,300 73	\$15,433 29	\$41,460 92	\$125,194 94	\$52,767 88
N. Hampshire	43,276 13	10,740 77	27,686 63	81,703 53	31,999 45
Vermont	41,041 08	12,000 34	25,597 44	78,638 86	62,476 85
Massachusetts	230,526 28	31,013 50	192,427 04	453,966 80	130,117 13
Rhode Island.	22,337 19	3,164 98	21,875 62	47,377 79	12,139 72
Connecticut...	70,545 94	15,156 57	60,661 99	146,364 50	64,173 13
New York...	686,509 29	111,752 43	377,254 35	1,175,516 06	455,019 76
Delaware....	9,660 38	1,989 22	4,661 11	16,310 71	9,412 00
New Jersey...	58,461 42	8,639 16	21,973 59	89,074 17	74,139 55
Pennsylvania..	273,372 91	61,001 69	153,933 70	488,308 30	238,019 69
Maryland.....	83,189 05	15,443 91	53,925 15	152,158 11	191,586 20
D. of Columbia	18,595 01	3,191 64	16,046 24	37,832 89
Virginia.....	90,894 86	28,112 26	64,465 07	183,472 19	313,234 72
N. Carolina...	28,838 43	12,107 45	19,805 63	60,751 51	175,630 59
S. Carolina...	41,302 78	10,144 03	31,538 94	82,985 75	127,169 19
Georgia.....	76,316 01	19,079 75	47,404 38	142,800 14	215,238 78
Florida	8,721 69	2,447 31	5,709 83	16,788 83	38,661 99
Alabama.....	53,804 18	15,491 93	26,795 74	96,091 85	178,543 35
Mississippi...	42,228 09	13,655 44	17,224 68	73,108 21	115,924 92
Texas.....	29,916 73	8,078 03	9,169 70	47,164 46	139,362 19
Kentucky.....	61,080 71	15,977 08	35,484 81	112,542 60	139,038 15
Michigan.....	53,048 34	14,470 76	29,238 09	96,757 19	136,260 14
Wisconsin....	44,493 41	13,132 09	15,945 33	73,570 83	46,608 00
Louisiana	80,822 52	13,440 96	33,906 70	128,170 18	90,420 73
Tennessee ...	45,272 79	13,943 83	26,484 48	85,701 10	92,885 29
Missouri.....	58,435 03	12,765 01	27,581 78	98,781 82	140,454 41
Illinois.....	99,425 85	28,069 78	47,851 20	175,346 83	181,611 19
Ohio.....	202,317 11	49,295 44	124,147 17	375,759 72	363,182 37
Indiana	77,520 25	24,399 02	35,420 16	137,339 43	109,392 96
Arkansas.....	16,188 71	4,595 27	4,321 91	25,105 89	90,859 15
Iowa	23,776 21	7,234 61	9,969 40	40,980 22	36,393 82
California....	93,951 04	13,111 56	16,089 40	123,152 90	174,243 02
Oregon.....	6,276 31	1,580 35	1,940 69	9,797 35	47,682 16
Minnesota ...	1,630 11	560 84	1,338 91	3,529 86	2,386 28
New Mexico ..	351 17	85 12	80 93	517 22	19,647 22
Utah	716 15	41 51	199 00	956 66	3,269 70
Nebraska	459 54	60 64	520 18
Washington..	149 66	12 49	74 74	236 89
	2,848,752 06	611,420 06	1,629,292 45	5,084,464 57	4,199,951 68

The following table exhibits the number of miles the mails were transported in the several States, together with the cost in each year from 1848 to 1853, inclusive:—

RAILROAD SERVICE AND COST FOR THE YEARS 1848, 1849, 1850, 1851, 1852, AND 1853.

States.	1848.		1849.		1850.	
	Transportation, miles.	Cost.	Transportation, miles.	Cost.	Transportation, miles.	Cost.
Maine.....	70,824	\$6,733	91,416	\$6,823	117,000	\$12,254
N. Hampshire	144,768	10,504	144,768	10,504	187,200	17,139
Vermont.....	188,604	28,875
Massachusetts	906,284	70,706	942,486	72,654	1,143,626	98,319
Rhode Island	30,264	4,850	30,264	4,850	86,112	8,612
Connecticut..	230,444	22,192	230,444	22,192	592,678	46,014
New York...	735,076	62,958	808,812	66,872	1,413,042	123,920
New Jersey..	208,728	37,551	264,992	37,422	273,728	37,622
Pennsylvania..	356,720	43,357	394,342	39,055	472,446	48,050
Maryland....	391,768	95,745	396,656	94,512	396,656	99,612
Ohio.....	96,928	9,115	183,460	19,730	183,560	19,730
Virginia.....	118,248	25,043	211,393	51,107	211,393	51,107
N. Carolina...	179,816	46,700	179,816	46,700	179,816	46,700
S. Carolina...	150,696	39,812	179,816	41,862	179,816	41,862
Georgia.....	404,196	74,037	429,156	76,017	470,152	80,376
Florida.....	7,176	620
Michigan....	149,760	13,374	214,968	23,188	305,864	33,593
Indiana.....	53,664	3,729	54,288	3,729	64,896	4,029
Illinois.....
Kentucky....
Tennessee....
Alabama.....	70,512	13,843	70,512	13,843	70,512	13,843
Mississippi...	28,704	3,943	33,488	4,600	43,316	5,950
Louisiana...
	4,327,400	584,192	4,861,177	635,740	6,524,593	818,227

States.	1851.		1852.		1853.	
	Transportation, miles.	Cost.	Transportation, miles.	Cost.	Transportation, miles.	Cost.
Maine.....	177,528	\$15,397	177,528	\$15,397	223,704	\$18,357
N. Hampshire	212,160	18,240	220,272	16,498	280,176	18,418
Vermont.....	235,668	32,262	270,660	31,508	393,588	42,884
Massachusetts	1,218,312	100,603	1,276,912	101,320	1,289,808	102,205
Rhode Island..	86,112	8,612	86,112	8,612	86,112	8,612
Connecticut..	552,944	46,471	565,365	47,236	580,029	48,586
New York....	2,177,604	176,175	2,837,276	262,830	3,009,958	302,209
New Jersey..	264,368	36,972	307,320	49,122	361,608	55,367
Pennsylvania..	561,990	57,915	866,606	71,165	907,946	108,196
Maryland....	601,224	113,450	597,064	112,700	725,504	156,495
Ohio.....	516,984	76,799	671,632	100,674	1,225,992	213,203
Virginia.....	233,961	52,507	366,946	73,393	612,490	85,007
N. Carolina...	179,816	46,700	263,016	53,571	299,208	59,475
S. Carolina...	230,828	45,366	411,528	52,010	510,328	61,812
Georgia.....	470,152	80,376	820,071	116,989	923,634	134,075
Florida.....	7,176	620
Michigan....	304,720	34,482	601,120	83,958	602,368	76,341
Indiana.....	99,216	10,650	215,904	22,511	222,768	23,211
Illinois.....	65,520	6,344	106,704	9,164	240,552	31,349
Kentucky...	40,040	1,535	136,864	8,040	136,864	8,840
Tennessee....	83,616	5,742	139,360	12,800
Alabama.....	83,616	17,443	155,688	26,180	160,160	26,487
Mississippi...	43,316	5,950	43,316	5,950	43,316	5,950
Louisiana....	1,248	150	1,248	150	11,232	450
	8,364,503	985,019	11,082,768	1,275,520	12,986,705	1,601,329

Art. IV.—FOREIGN EXCHANGES.*

EXCHANGE means, generally, the giving and receiving of one thing for another. When any article is said to possess exchangeable value, we mean that it can be given and received for something else. The general principle of exchange was well known and practiced in the earliest times. It is synonymous with barter—a system peculiar to the early condition of every country before the introduction of a particular medium of exchange.

That system of giving and receiving one article for another which is practiced by the inhabitants of any country among themselves, may be called their domestic exchange; and every banker may readily obtain a competent idea of this system of exchange, by attending to the daily operations carried on at his own counter. As the world grew older and society advanced in knowledge, and the inhabitants of one country became desirous of exchanging their products or manufactures for those of the inhabitants of another country, the system of dealing between these different countries acquired the name of foreign exchanges. Thus we had first the domestic exchanges, by which one thing was exchanged for another between the inhabitants of the same country, and then the foreign exchanges, by which the productions and manufactures of one country were exchanged for those of another or of other countries.

In addition to these two systems we have for many years had in active operation a third, and that is the exchanging of the productions and manufactures of one country for those of other countries dependent upon it, such dealings for instance as are in operation between the mother country, Great Britain, and her colonies in all parts of the world.

Foreign exchange is the system under which the inhabitants of one country exchange their productions and manufactures with the inhabitants of other countries. This has been often and clearly explained by different writers upon commercial, banking, and financial subjects, and those who wish to acquire a more extensive and thorough acquaintance with its various bearings than can be given in a paper of this kind, may consult with advantage the writings of Adam Smith, McCulloch, Gilbart, Tait, Waterston, and others, and the article "Exchange" in the *Encyclopedia Britannica*.

You will readily understand that if the commodities supplied by one

* We are indebted to the author, G. M. BELL Esq., Secretary of the London Chartered Bank of Australia, and the author of several valuable treatises on banking and kindred topics, for the following paper on Foreign Exchanges. It is part of an essay on "Foreign and Colonial Exchanges," which was read before, and discussed by the Banking Institute in London, Mr. McGREGOR, late one of the secretaries of the British Board of Trade, and now member of Parliament, in the chair. Among the distinguished financiers and bankers who took part in the discussion were JAMES W. GILBERT, F. R. S., an able writer on Practical Banking, and the General Manager of the London and Westminster Bank, SAMUEL ROGERS, the banker and poet, Mr. ATWOOD, of the British North American Bank, and the chairman, Mr. McGREGOR, all of whom paid a high compliment to the ability displayed by the writer of this article. Mr. BELL, who has kindly revised and made some verbal corrections in his essay for the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, will excuse us for omitting the part relating to Colonial Exchanges. The only apology we have to offer is, that it does not possess the same general interest to the American, that it necessarily must to the British merchant and banker. We need make no apology to our readers, as we are quite sure they will find Mr. BELL's definition of the nature and character of Foreign Exchanges at once clear and comprehensive.—*Ed. Merch. Magazine.*

country to another be equal in value, the exchange between those two countries must then be at par or equal; the transactions are balanced and adjusted, and nothing remains due from either side. This is in fact what is understood by the par of exchange, or by the exchanges being at par. Or, in reference to money, when for a sum of money paid in England, containing, according to the English mint, a certain number of ounces of pure silver, you obtain a bill for a sum of money to be paid in France, containing, according to the standard of the French mint, an equal number of ounces of pure silver, the exchange is said to be at par, or equal between France and England. In other words, when the exchanges between any two countries are said to be at par, it is a sign that the debts due by the one country are compensated by those due to it from the other. But, I may remark, that this is a condition of affairs very rarely witnessed; and you can easily comprehend that in the extensive mercantile transactions constantly carrying on between one commercial country and another, the chances are very faint of the exchanges being at any time entirely at par. On the contrary you can readily suppose that they must frequently diverge more or less from this point of equality. The cause of this divergence lies in the respective operations of these countries. If the one country exports a larger amount of goods to the other country than it imports from that country, then the exchange is in favor of the exporting country—that is to say, it is a creditor to the amount of the surplus of its exports over its imports. It has this difference to receive, and having a sum to receive, the exchange is to that amount in its favor. Now where there are a great variety and amount of transactions constantly taking place between any two countries, though it rarely indeed happens that the exchanges are at par, yet there is a constant tendency to an adjustment of balances, and in this way the exchanges come in ordinary times to acquire something like a fixed rate between one country and another, equivalent in most cases to the expense of transmitting gold. Experience also shows that with every increase in the facility of intercourse and exchange, there is a tendency to an equality and steadiness of value, which becomes more and more uniform year after year, and is very much more so now than was the case fifty or a hundred years ago.

Now the most important instruments we possess for carrying on trade between foreign countries, are bills of exchange. They are called bills of exchange because they have their origin in Commerce, and are intended to represent the value of commodities passing or which have passed between one country and another. They are said to have been invented by the Jews or the Lombards for the purpose of withdrawing their property from countries from which they were expelled. They were not used in England until 1307, in the first year of Edward II. and in the fifth year of Richard II.; they were the only method allowed by law for sending money out of the kingdom. The manner in which bills of exchange were first indented with Commerce, has been supposed to be this:—The drawer and acceptor were persons respectively residing in different countries, and the bill was an order in writing, delivered to a third person, who was about to visit the country where the debtor resided. It might happen that this person was not going to return. In that case he might advance the amount of the order to the creditor, and receive the money from the debtor when he arrived at the end of his journey. In the event of his only going part of the way, he might meet with another party who was going the rest of

the distance, who would advance him the money for the order received from the creditor, which would then be transferred. In this way it would be found that an order of this kind might be transferred to a fourth or fifth, or indeed to any number of persons. To effect these operations each party receiving the order or bill must be considered to have confidence in the drawer, or some one or more of the indorsers, and also to receive some compensation for his trouble. If the order was payable at a certain number of months after date, his compensation would be increased by receiving interest for the time the bill had to run. The progress of Commerce and civilization have led to improvements in the form of bills of exchange and the manner of negotiating them, or passing them from hand to hand; but the original principle remains the same at the present day.

Bills enter largely into the system of the foreign exchanges. When there is a balance due from one country to another, if not adjusted by a remittance of goods of some kind, or bills of exchange, it must be adjusted by that which is the medium of traffic between individuals as well as nations—that is gold! As the precious metals are the only satisfactory medium for squaring up the difference between the debtor and creditor side of an account among individuals, so they are the last and best adjusters of balances among nations.

In modern Commerce, it is the practice of merchants when they have made a shipment of goods, to draw a bill upon their foreign correspondents for the amount; and it is the practice of the parties on the other side to act in the same manner; and thus it happens that if the amount exchanged between the two countries is the same, the demand for bills and the supply of bills will be equal. The exchange, as before said, is then at par. But if the balance is more on the one side than on the other, the difference may probably be adjusted by transmitting gold. The expense of freight and insurance for transmitting gold is of course considerable; and if a merchant can obtain a bill to remit to his creditor for a little more than the amount of his debt, and less than the expense of sending gold, he will send a bill; but if sending a bill would cost him more than the risk and expense of sending gold, then the gold will be sent. So thus in point of fact, the expense of freight and insurance in sending gold from one country to another constitutes the true difference of exchange between the two countries. But from this point the exchanges will sometimes diverge so as to be a little more or a little less. This is occasioned by variations in the demand and supply of bills of exchange. Thus in the cases of London and Paris:—If you can sell a bill in Paris for more than the amount for which it is drawn, the course of exchange is said to be against England and in favor of France; but, if on the contrary, you are obliged to take less for your bill than the amount for which it is drawn, then the exchange is said to be against France and in favor of England. The price of bills is regulated like that of most other articles—by demand and supply; and these, again, are regulated by the state of trade between one country and another; the exchange being said to be favorable or unfavorable to any particular place, according as a larger or smaller amount of the currency of that place is required to discharge any given amount of foreign payments.

I have alluded to the sale of bills. This leads me to observe that the selling and negotiating foreign bills of exchange is a branch of business which, in England at least, is independent of banking. English bankers do not engage in this sort of traffic. It is carried on by a distinct class of

men called "exchange brokers." If the customer of a country banker pays in a foreign bill, or a parcel of foreign bills, to his account, they are not immediately passed to his credit, but are handed to the exchange broker, who disposes of them to the best advantage and pays over the proceeds to the banker, which are then passed to the account of the customer.

The manner in which the buying and selling of foreign bills is conducted, is thus described by Waterston, in his *Cyclopedia of Commerce* :—

"In this country the buying and selling of bills on foreign countries is conducted by brokers, all such transactions centering in the metropolis. In London the days for the negotiation of foreign bills are Tuesdays and Fridays—the *foreign post days*. The brokers go round to the principal merchants and discover whether they are buyers or sellers; and a few of the more influential, after ascertaining the state of the market, suggest a price at which the greater part of the transactions are settled, with such deviations as particular bills may be subject to from their high or low credit. For the bills they buy on one post day, houses of established credit pay on the following post day when they receive the second and third bills of the set; foreign bills being usually drawn in sets of three. On the evenings of Tuesdays and Fridays the market rates for bills on all the principal foreign cities, with the current prices of bullion, are published in Wetenhall's *Course of the Exchange*."

The late Mr. Rothschild stated, before the parliamentary committee of 1832—"I purchase regularly, week by week, from 80,000*l.* to 100,000*l.* worth of bills, which are drawn for goods shipped from Liverpool, Manchester, Newcastle, and other places; and I send them to the Continent to my houses. My houses purchase against them bills upon Great Britain, which are drawn for wine, wool, and other commodities. But if there be not a sufficient supply of bills abroad on Great Britain, we are obliged to get gold from Paris, Hamburgh, and elsewhere."

It being the fact that English bankers, as such, are not in the practice of buying and selling foreign bills or dealing in the exchanges, although foreign and continental bankers make this more or less a part of their profession, it has long been a moot point whether, in the conducting of their ordinary business bankers ought to pay any regard to the fluctuations of the exchanges. The subject has been argued over and over again, and various opinions were advanced before different committees of the House of Commons. The question applies chiefly to country bankers who issue their own notes; and, generally, to all bankers who are supposed to have a proper regard for the safe management of their business.

The condition of the foreign exchanges is the result of the operations of trade; and the bank that would undertake to regulate the foreign exchanges, undertakes of necessity to regulate also the operations of trade, both at home and abroad. It will be remembered that the Bank of England considered it to be an important part of its duty to regulate the foreign exchanges, and it was held to be the duty of the country banks of issue to conform in every respect to the action of the Bank of England. Certain writers on the currency considered that, by attending to the exchanges and lessening the supply of currency when they began to fall, and increasing it when they began to rise, the value of paper money might be kept very nearly on a level with the value of the metallic money that would circulate in its stead, were it withdrawn; and that this ought to be the conduct of every prudent banker obliged to pay his notes on demand. The country

bankers, on the other hand, repudiated the idea of being under any obligation to regulate their issues by the foreign exchanges, or that the foreign exchanges were in any degree influenced by the issues of country banks. Their issues of notes, they alleged, were regulated, and could alone be regulated by the demands of trade. It is not my intention to offer any opinion of my own on the present occasion on this subject, having already done so in some of my published writings; but even supposing it to have been the duty, as was insisted on, of the country bankers to regulate their issues by the foreign exchanges, it may now be worthy of consideration whether the act of 1844, passed by Sir Robert Peel, fixing the amount of notes to be issued by each bank of issue, did not thenceforward completely relieve them from any implied obligation to regulate their issues by the foreign exchanges, and whether, indeed, the Bank of England is not also entirely relieved from the necessity of attempting to regulate her issues by the influx and efflux of bullion. Whether or not that act has had any beneficial effect in regulating the conduct of bankers, moderating the fluctuations of the foreign exchanges, and improving the commercial condition of the country, are questions fairly open to discussion.

Now, although the English bankers do not deal in the foreign exchanges, they are supposed, as men of business, to have a general idea of the nature of these operations, and to know also something of the principles which regulate the rates of exchange upon different countries. The moneys of different countries vary in denomination and amount; and in comparing the money of one place with that of another, it is usual to reckon one as fixed and the other as variable. It may be observed, however, that no perfect par of exchange can possibly exist, as between two countries which have not the same standard metal for their respective currencies. The country whose money is calculated at a fixed price is said to receive the variable price, while the other country is said to give the variable price. The higher the exchange, therefore, between any two places, the more will it be in favor of the one that receives the variable price. Thus, in the case of London and Paris, London receives from Paris a variable amount of francs and centimes for 1*l.* sterling; and if you take the par at 25 francs 34 centimes for 1*l.*, the exchange will be 5 per cent in favor of London when it rises to 26 francs 62 centimes, and about as much against London when it falls to 24 francs 7 centimes. According to the evidence given by Mr. Rothschild, when we say that a par of exchange exists between this country and France, we mean that we can then obtain 25 francs and 20 centimes in Paris for a sovereign. When for the sovereign we can get only 25 francs and 15 or 10 centimes, we then consider the exchanges as so much below par. The sterling value of the sovereign is thus far reduced; and it is evidence of the fact, that we are sending gold abroad upon which we receive no premium. In this state of things the exchanges are unfavorable to us. If we calculate the value of the currency here against that of the currency of France, we may, at any time, ascertain the par pretty correctly, by adding to that value the premium then payable for gold. The exchanges are against the country which pays the higher premium, and the amount of the excess is the measure of its loss.

The custom of merchants has established the principle of drawing foreign bills at a "usance" after date. A usance from Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Hamburg, or any place in Germany, is one month; from France, thirty days; from Spain and Portugal, two months; from Sweden, seventy-five

days; from Italy three months. Foreign bills are usually drawn in sets of three bills, for the same amount, so that, in the event of the first remitted being lost or stolen, the second or third may be made available. When one of the bills has been accepted, the others of course are of no service.

Next to bills of exchange, the precious metals, and especially gold, form an important element in the fluctuations and regulations of the foreign exchanges. They are the medium by which all the differences in the exchanges are ultimately arranged. When the exchanges are against England, the result is an exportation of the precious metals to adjust the balance. The first intimation which the country bankers, and, indeed, the commercial classes generally, receive of an unfavorable state of the exchanges, is by observing a large or continued diminution of the bullion in the returns of the bank of England. It was customary on former occasions to consider the Bank of England as chiefly instrumental in producing great fluctuations in the foreign exchanges—first, by issuing notes to excess, and afterwards by suddenly restricting their issues. By issuing notes to excess, the Bank of England is said to stimulate prices, and create great speculation in trade, thereby rendering the exchanges unfavorable, and causing a demand for gold for exportation. When this takes place the Bank, by again restricting its issues, depresses prices, and produces often great commercial distress, in its endeavor to turn the exchanges and get back the gold. There are writers who maintain that a depression of the exchanges for any considerable period, accompanied by an exportation of gold, is infallible evidence, independent of all other considerations, that the currency is relatively redundant. According to M'Culloch, "If the exchange be generally on the advantage, it is a proof that the currency of the country is becoming deficient, and that it may be slowly and cautiously enlarged; and conversely, when it is falling." This is the principle of regulating the currency by the foreign exchanges; and whether or not this is a sound principle is a matter of opinion. But under any circumstances, an unfavorable state of the exchanges will occasion an exportation of gold; and a continuous drain of gold will be an indication that the exchanges are unfavorable.

Now, this exportation and importation of gold, in reference to the exchanges, is not carried on by the bankers, but by merchants, and parties who deal in exchanges—such houses, for instance, as that of Messrs. Rothschild. These gentlemen deal in exchanges; they may be said to be the great regulators of the foreign exchanges. You have seen that in the case of foreign bills, the exchange brokers are in the habit of going round to the different merchants and buying them up at a regulated price; and you have heard to what a large extent these operations are conducted by the house of Rothschild. So in the case of the exportation and importation of gold, this is managed by such houses as I have mentioned, by constant observation of the fluctuations of the exchanges at home and abroad. Gold is an article of merchandise, and its supply in any one place is regulated by the demand. Since 1819, the trade in gold and silver in England has been perfectly free. Any one has full liberty to engage with foreigners in this traffic; and such is the facility with which bullion may be conveyed from one country to another, that its value in Hamburgh or Amsterdam will hardly vary one-eighth per cent from its value in London, without causing its immediate transmission from one country to the other.

In the ordinary course of things there is a regular payment of gold to England from the whole world, affording undoubted evidence that the bills drawn in foreign countries are not equal to those drawn there. England seems to be the loadstone which attracts gold from all parts of the globe.

I may farther observe on this part of my subject, that under the general head of foreign exchange, are comprised nominal exchange, real exchange, and computed exchange. The first has reference to the comparative value of the currencies of different countries, which depend upon the relative value of bullion in those countries, and on the quantity for which their coin or paper money will exchange. If the bullion, coin, or paper money of two countries are so adjusted, that a given quantity of the one will exchange for a proportionate equal amount of the other, the nominal exchange between those countries will be at par or equal. In whatever respects the currency of either country fails to measure an equal value of the currency of the other, the nominal exchange will accordingly be so much above or below par; so much in favor of or against the one or the other. *Real* exchange is that which relates to the interchange of commodities without reference to the precious metals. When two nations trading together purchase the one from the other, commodities of exactly the same value, their claims upon each other are of course equal, and the real exchange is said to be at par. If, however, the amount purchased by the one nation is greater than that purchased by the other, the real exchange will be in favor of the one and against the other to the extent of the difference between their mutual purchases. The balance is then settled by a remittance of bills, or an adequate amount of commodities or of bullion, whichever of these means the debtor finds most advantageous or economical, in order to discharge his liabilities. It may happen that the nominal exchange may be against a country, while the real exchange is in its favor. This is adjusted in the computed exchange, which makes allowance for the one and takes credit for the other, and thus shows the actual state or position of the exchange between any two or more countries, and is, in fact, the ultimate condition into which all differences must be resolved. It is the object of the mercantile system to create a favorable balance of payments, or in other words, a favorable *real* exchange, by giving every facility to our exports and restricting our imports. But, according to M'Culloch, so far from an excess of exports over imports being any criterion of an advantageous Commerce, it is quite the reverse; and the truth is, notwithstanding all that has been said to the contrary, that unless the value of the imports exceeded that of the exports, foreign trade could not be carried on.

The foreign exchanges have always a tendency to correct themselves, and their fluctuations can never for any lengthened period exceed the expense of transmitting bullion from one country to another. The transactions of the exchange brokers facilitate this tendency of the exchanges to correct themselves. They buy bills where they are cheapest, and sell them where they are dearest. Similar operations are carried on by merchants and dealers in bullion. So that while there are always circumstances which produce more or less an oscillation of the exchanges, there are at the same time operations going on to adjust and equalize them.

Art. V.—COMMERCE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

TRADE OF SMYRNA IN 1853.

By the following statistics, it will be seen that the trade of Smyrna in 1853 amounted to piasters of the Grand Sequin, 335,858,000; that is to say, the imports to 131,168,890 piasters, and the exports to 204,689,770—thus leaving a balance in favor of the Province of Smyrna.

IMPORTS.

	Piasters.		Piasters.
England	38,202,160	Tuscany	1,484,800
Germany & Switzerland..	27,201,150	Belgium	987,330
Turkish ports.....	25,200,300	Malta	925,100
France.....	16,751,300	Sardinia	408,600
U. S. of America	10,365,060	Greece	348,540
Russia	5,033,400	Various other countries ..	318,650
Holland.....	4,122,500		
Total			131,168,890

EXPORTS.

	Piasters.		Piasters.
England	105,652,410	Holland	4,626,660
Germany	29,832,640	Various other countries ..	1,733,530
U. S. of America.....	24,178,330	Tuscany	1,292,250
France	15,234,710	Belgium	704,040
Turkish ports.....	9,216,530	Greece	372,600
Russia.....	6,282,190	Sardinia	286,420
Malta	5,270,350		
Total			204,689,770

NAVIGATION.

The following tables will show, also, the navigation of the port of Smyrna during 1853:—

SAILING VESSELS ENTERED.

	No.	Tonnage.		No.	Tonnage.
Ottoman	546	49,076	Danish.....	7	909
English	166	27,465	Swedish.....	6	907
Greek	176	17,463	Sardinian ..	5	761
Austrian	47	10,066	Hanse Towns	4	597
French	33	5,833	Sicilian	3	430
U. S. of America ...	26	8,718	Prussian.....	2	437
Russian.....	22	2,802	Mecklenburgh	1	288
Dutch	18	2,512	Belgian.....	1	157
Ionian	10	1,169			
Total				1,073	129,690

SAILING VESSELS DEPARTED.

	No.	Tonnage.		No.	Tonnage.
Ottoman	533	43,563	Danish	7	909
English	173	28,444	Sardinian.....	6	881
Greek	153	14,866	Swedish.....	6	907
Austrian	45	9,784	Hanse Towns	4	577
French	33	5,869	Sicilian.....	3	490
U. S. of America	26	8,718	Prussian.....	2	497
Russian.....	22	2,556	Mecklenburgh	1	288
Dutch.....	18	2,540	Belgian	1	157
Ionian Islands.....	10	1,199			
Total				1,043	122,245

STEAMERS ARRIVED.

	No.	Tonnage.		No.	Tonnage.
Austria	205	82,489	English	50	30,632
French	111	48,946	Ottoman	21	5,930
Total				337	167,997

STEAMERS DEPARTED.

	No.	Tonnage.		No.	Tonnage.
Austrian	207	83,253	English	51	31,360
French	111	48,946	Ottoman	21	5,930
Total				390	169,389

In the preceding list are included all the vessels sailing under Samian and Wallachian colors. The smaller vessels, being in the coast trade, are not included. These latter form no insignificant portion of the trade of Smyrna, and in 1853 amounted to 1,836 boats, zerniks, goelettes, &c., varying from 5 to 29 tons each, giving a total of 22,874 tons, under Ottoman, Samian, Wallachian, and Greek colors.

The Spanish dollar values in Smyrna about twenty-four piasters of the Sultan.

CONSTANTINOPLE, April 21, 1854.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

DEMURRAGE—LAY DAYS IN LIVERPOOL—CHARTER PARTY, ETC., ETC.

In Admiralty, United States District Court, New York, 1854. Before Judge INGERSOLL. Jonathan Pierson, et al., vs. David Ogden.

On the 28th of April, 1851, the respondent chartered the ship Hemisphere, then in this port, of the libelants, her owners, for a voyage from Liverpool to the port of New York. By the charter party it was agreed that the ship should receive on board at Liverpool a full cargo of general merchandise, and not exceeding 513 passengers; and that the ship should not be obliged to take on board an amount of iron exceeding her registered tonnage. The respondent was to provide water, provisions, and berths, and all other expenses connected with the passengers, and to pay hospital and commutation fees in New York, and quarantine expenses. If the ship provided berths, the respondent was to pay the usual price for them, and he was to buy the passenger-stores then on board at their value in Liverpool. The lay-days for loading at Liverpool were to be as follows: "Commencing from the time the captain reports himself ready to receive cargo, fifteen running lay-days; and for each and every day's detention, by default of the respondent or agent, one hundred silver dollars per day to be paid by respondent."

The libelants now sue to recover the charter money which was agreed upon at £1,500, the value of the passengers' stores on board, and seven days' demurrage at Liverpool. The respondent denies that they are entitled to demurrage, and objects to paying the charter money, on the ground that the ship did not bring a full cargo.

By the act of 3 and 4 Wm. IV., c. 52, entitled "An act for the general regulation of the customs," it is provided, among other things, that no goods shall be shipped, or water-borne to be shipped, on board any ship in any port or place in

the United Kingdom, to be carried beyond seas, before due entry outwards of such ship, and due entry of such goods, shall be made and cocket granted, nor before such goods shall be duly cleared for shipment, in manner therein directed, under pain of forfeiture.

It is also provided that before any goods be taken on board any outward-bound ship, the master shall deliver to the collector or controller a certificate from the proper officer of the clearance inwards of such ship on her last voyage, and also an account, signed by the master or his agent, of the entry outwards of such ship for the outward voyage, &c.

If, however, it becomes necessary to lade any heavy goods before the whole of the inward cargo is discharged, in order to stiffen or ballast the ship, it is lawful for the collector or controller to issue to the master what is called a "stiffening note," being a permit to receive such goods for that purpose. After the whole of the inward cargo is discharged, the collector issues to the master what is called a "jerk note," being a permit which authorizes him to receive on board goods for his outward cargo.

The *Hemi-sphere* set sail from this port soon after the execution of the charter party. She arrived at Liverpool in June, and soon after commenced discharging. On the 24th of June, having discharged a part of her cargo, her master obtained from the collector a "stiffening note," authorizing him to receive on board railroad iron only. On the 28th of June all her cargo was discharged, but the "jerk note," authorizing him to receive his outward cargo, was not obtained till the 30th. Some railroad iron was furnished previous to this, and before July 15 the whole cargo was furnished, consisting of railroad and other iron, crates, boxes of dry goods, &c., making up a cargo of general merchandise. The captain, on the 23d day of June, reported to the agent of the respondents that he was ready to receive cargo.

The libelants allege that the lay-days commenced on the receipt of the "stiffening note," on the 24th of June, which would give them seven days' demurrage; while the respondent claims that they did not commence until the receipt of the "jerk note," on the 30th, in which case they would be entitled to no demurrage.

The expression in the charter party is, that the lay-days commenced "from the time the master reports himself ready to receive cargo." They do not commence, however, until he has a right to report himself ready, and he has no such right until the ship is actually ready; and she is not ready as long as she is prohibited by law from receiving cargo, in consequence of the non-performance of certain things to be done on her part, and there can be no delay on the part of the charterer until she has been so made ready.

The construction of that part of the charter party relating to lay-days is, that the charterer shall have the right to detain the ship, in order to put on board a cargo of general merchandise, fifteen days after she shall have been placed at his disposal, and not detained on business of the owner or prior charterer, and after she shall have been put in such a condition that he can put on board such a cargo. She was not detained by the charterer before June 30th, but by the owner for the purpose of discharging her inward cargo. Till that time no goods could have been put on board of her except railroad iron. The respondent was not bound to put any railroad or other iron on board under the charter party. He could put on board a cargo of general merchandise without putting on board any iron. Till the 30th of June, then, she was not ready to receive a cargo of general merchandise, and the lay-days do not commence till that time.

This also agrees with the custom of the port of Liverpool, as shown by the weight of the evidence in the cause.

No delay was occasioned to the ship in consequence of the passengers.

The weight of testimony is, that she was fully and properly loaded, and the respondent has no ground for claiming that she did not bring a full cargo.

Nor has he any ground of complaint as to the number of passengers. The charter party did not require that 513 passengers should be brought at all events. A portion of the cargo was so placed between decks that so many could not have been brought without violating the act of Congress on that subject. Only 350

berths were provided by the ship, and none by the charterer; and only 350 passengers were tendered to the ship, and these she brought. The agent of the respondent did not claim that more berths should be furnished, and thereby assented that no more passengers should be brought.

The respondent is also, by the terms of the charter party, liable for the hospital and commutation fees in New York, for quarantine expenses, and for the passenger-stores furnished by the libellant.

Decree, therefore, that the libellants recover the charter money, less what they have been paid, besides the hospital money, &c., and the price of the stores, and reference to a commissioner to ascertain the amount.

For libellant, Mr. Donohue and Mr. Parsons; for respondent, Mr. Owen.

LIABILITY OF MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANIES TO TAXATION.

In the Supreme Court (New York) General Term, July, 1834. Before Judges Mitchell, Roosevelt, and Clerke. The Mutual Insurance Company of New York vs. Joseph Jenkins.

The plaintiffs insist that they are not liable to taxation; and have brought this action against the tax collector for wrongfully—as they contend—levying on their property. Corporations, it is admitted, are liable to taxation on their capital, but mutual insurance companies, like the plaintiffs, it is argued have no capital. This position seems to me, is not maintainable either in principle or in the letter of the law. The word capital, in its general acceptation, and where not otherwise specially defined, means the stock or fund on which an individual, or firm, or corporation, trades or carries on business. Where a fixed sum, in a given instance, is especially declared to be the capital, that sum, whether increased by profits or diminished by losses, is taken as the measure of taxation, not from any principle, but because such happens to be the wording of the particular act or charter. Such was the case of the Bank of Utica. All moneyed or stock corporations deriving an income or profit are liable to taxation on their capital, and, of course, if that capital be not otherwise limited, on the fund upon which they do business. A corporation authorized by law to make insurances, whether on fires or on lives, is a moneyed corporation, and may make profits, although *eo nomine*, it makes no periodical dividends. In the Mutual Life Insurance Company, who are the plaintiffs in this case, every customer, in proportion to the business he brings to the concern, is a stockholder. His shares, instead of being, as in ordinary corporations, exact aliquot parts of the common fund, are graduated by the premiums he may see fit to contribute; and the common fund or capital, instead of being confined to a fixed invariable sum, grows with the growth of those premiums, the interest being in the first instance, resorted to for the payment of losses. The mere circumstance that a portion of the common fund is liable to be withdrawn on the happening of a death, does not destroy its character as capital; the same result follows from death in the case of a partnership between individuals, and from fire or shipwreck, in the case of an ordinary insurance company. The company themselves, in their invitations to the public, obviously contemplate their moneys and securities as capital. They speak of the “stability and perpetuity” of their business, as founded on “an accumulated fund of a million of dollars, securely invested in bonds and mortgages,” &c. And in the act of incorporation, when directing the investment of the “premiums received for insurance,” it is provided that the real property to secure such “investment of capital shall in every case be worth twice the amount loaned thereon.” The conclusion then is, “that the accumulated fund,” by whatever name it may be designated, is the corporate property of the plaintiffs, and not the individual property of the stockholders or contributors, except in the same sense, and with the same qualifications, as the capital of any moneyed corporation not founded on the mutual principle; and that the plaintiffs, therefore, are liable to taxation in respect of such fund, in the same manner as any other corporation in respect of its capital.

Judgment of Special Term, for the reasons assigned by the judge who pronounced the same, affirmed, with costs.

GUARANTORS.

In the Superior Court, General Term, July, 1854. Before Judge MITCHELL, Chief Justice. Judges ROOSEVELT and CLERKE, Associates. Henry Green, &c., vs. William T. Cutter.

By the Court—Roosevelt, J.—The defendants were guarantors. They loaned their names as inducements, in behalf of their friends, to invite credits which would otherwise have been withheld. Under the plea of alleged want of due diligence in prosecuting the primary debtors, they now seek to escape from the consequences of their engagement. At the time the goods whose payment they guarantied were sold, the purchasers resided and did business in Michigan. When the purchasers failed to pay, the creditors who had trusted them brought an action in the United States Circuit Court in Michigan; but the Sheriff or Marshal to whom the process was intrusted, returned one of the defendants as not found. Although, therefore, the suit was against both, the judgment was against one. And this judgment, it is said, merged the joint demand and converted into a claim against one only, thus, to the prejudice of the sureties, discharging the other debtor; whereas, had the creditors brought their suit, as they might have done, in the State Court, the judgment, in virtue of a special State law would have been, it is said, against both, and both would have been held to their joint obligation. The argument, it will be perceived, assumes that, by the proceeding in the United States Court, one of the debtors was discharged, and that that proceeding was the voluntary and improvident act of the creditors. And as it is true, in point of law, that a judgment against one of his two joint debtors, in all cases and under all circumstances, discharges the other, and that the other, if afterwards used upon the joint demand, may plead the previous unsatisfied judgment against his associate, as an absolute bar? Is it no reply to such a plea to say that the creditor did not elect, but was compelled to take judgment, as he did, against the one alone, because the other had absconded? The doctrine of merger is founded upon convenience—convenience to the Court and convenience to the parties—upon the consideration that two suits should not be permitted where one was sufficient. Does this reason apply in favor of a man who had rendered a joint, and of consequence a single, suit impossible? What right has he, or rather what right could he have, to complain of double vexation? Is it possible in such a case for the creditor to obtain a full remedy except by two suits? Even with the aid of a special statute, the Court, having no jurisdiction over an absent party, can render no binding personal judgment against him; so that, although in four against two, the recovery in effect, if pursued in that mode, would be only against one. Wherein as a remedial proceeding, then, would such a judgment, in the State Court, have been more advantageous than the judgment which was recovered in the Federal Court? In either case the record would have shown that the course of action was a joint demand, and that if an effectual recovery was not had against both, it was no fault of the plaintiffs. They sued both, but both were not found. Besides, a federal judgment in some respects may be preferable to a State judgment. Stay laws and appraisement laws are powerless for it; and the Supreme Court of the United States had decided a decision, which in subsequent cases brought within their jurisdiction, they were likely to follow, that a separate judgment against one partner, even where taken without necessity, was no bar to a subsequent suit against the other. It may be that that adjudication has since been partially qualified; yet the reasoning on which it rests, in all cases of necessity, still remains. At all events there cannot be a doubt, I think, that a court of equity in such a case, would enjoin the defendant from availing himself of such a technical bar—in analogy to the practice which allows a bill in equity against the representatives of a deceased partner, after an unsatisfied judgment against the survivor, notwithstanding that it involves the difficulty of merger and double litigation. Double litigation is an evil; but like other evils, if necessary to the attainment of justice, it must be submitted to, especially by those whose acts or omissions have created the necessity. I assume, therefore, that whether the judgment in Michigan were in form against two but in fact against one, or both

in form, and in fact against only one, it would in neither case deprive the parties of an efficient remedy subsequently, in some form, against the other. At all events, the suit, brought in the Federal Court, being a *bona fide* exercise of a sound discretion, and especially as no actual loss from that election is either proved or pretended, there is no ground for charging the creditors with a want of "due and legal diligence." The effort made by them to recover of the principal debtors was a legal effort, and a proper effort and the only one, as it appears to me, which they were bound to make. Its fruitlessness is no answer to the argument. The very fruitlessness, anticipated as possible by all the parties, was the reason for tendering the guaranty and the motive for requiring it.

It seems to be assumed—and some judicial dicta have at times given countenance to the idea—that in actions against guarantors all sorts of technicalities, whether equitable or inequitable, rational or irrational, are to be invoked by counsel or encouraged by the Court, to prevent a recovery. For myself I do not believe that the common law, which in its general scope professes to be founded on common sense and common honesty, is so inconsistent as to lose sight of these attributes the moment it approaches the boundaries of suretyship. What difference is there in principle between soliciting credit for one's self or soliciting it for one's brother? The consideration is the creditor's parting with his goods on the faith of the engagement, and the benefit the surety receives, or expects to receive, from obliging his friend. It is not only a good, but a valuable consideration—as much so, in every just sense, as if the surety had himself become the purchaser. Judgment for plaintiff.

LAND CASE DECIDED BY THE SUPREME COURT OF TEXAS.

The Supreme Court of the State of Texas, sitting at Galveston, has just rendered a decision of great importance to settlers and purchasers of land in Texas, settling a principle which applies to hundreds of land titles. The question at issue was, what under the colonization laws of Texas constituted a residence which entitled a man to enter land, as head of a family, and transmit it to his heirs, he never having carried his family to reside there.

The case before the Court was that of one Russell, from the State of Maine, who went to Texas in the year 1834, and in August, 1835, obtained a grant of land in the then county of Montgomery, representing himself as having come to the country with his family to reside. Shortly after, he went back to Maine, for the alleged purpose of bringing out his family, but died soon after. In 1841, his daughter's husband took possession of the land, and made a crop. In 1849, one Randolph located a land warrant upon it as vacant land, alleging it to be public domain, by reason of the invalidity or forfeiture of the grant to Russell, first as a non-resident, and then for fraudulent description of himself.

The Court sustained the grant on both grounds. It decided that Russell's residence, with the intent to make his home in Texas, departing only with the purpose of bringing back his family, entitled him to enter the land, and that, constructively and legally, the domicile of his family was with him, and his declaration that his family was with him was legally correct according to the laws of Texas. The departure, with a *bona fide* intent to return, did not affect the domicile he had acquired, and the grant of land inured to his heirs.—*Charleston Courier*.

JOINT-STOCK COMPANIES.

The registered officer of a joint-stock banking company applied to prove against the estate of a deceased shareholder for calls due. By the deed of settlement, an option was given to the representatives of deceased shareholders either to sell the shares or become members of the company on certain conditions. Prior to the exercise of this option, the directors were empowered to retain the dividends, and, after notice, to declare the shares forfeited. No option had been exercised by the executors in this case, and the directors had retained the dividends, but had taken no steps to declare the shares forfeited. They were not held to be entitled to prove for calls due.—*Eng. Law Times*, Rep. 256.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

GENERAL ASPECT OF COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY—STATE OF THE FALL TRADE—NECESSITY OF REFORM IN THE SYSTEM OF RAILROAD MANAGEMENT—COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE BANKS IN THE CITY AND STATE OF NEW YORK, IN THE CITY OF BOSTON AND STATE OF MASSACHUSETTS, AND IN THE CITY OF NEW ORLEANS—REVENUE AND ESTIMATED IMPORTS OF THE WHOLE UNITED STATES—RECEIPTS FOR DUTIES ON IMPORTS AT PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS—DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS FOR JULY—IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR JULY AND FROM JANUARY FIRST—IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS—RECEIPTS FOR CASH DUTIES—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR JULY AND FROM JANUARY FIRST—EXPORTS OF LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE—INCOMING CROPS OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC.

THE market is but little more settled than at the date of our last, and in some of its features the aspect of commercial affairs is certainly less favorable. There have been more failures among business men throughout the country, although but few who were not involved in stock speculations have been obliged to yield to the storm. There is a general retrenchment and taking-in of sail among all classes, and thus it is to be hoped that there will be no important commercial disasters. Money continues in request, and most borrowers outside of the banks are compelled to pay from one to two per cent a month for the use of capital, while lenders in all quarters are more scrupulous, and the discrimination between first and second class securities is daily becoming more exacting.

The trade of the country presents some singular characteristics. While money is dear, provisions of nearly all kinds are dearer, and the stringency in funds seems to produce little effect upon the prices of the necessities of life. The trade in other merchandise in regular channels is quite slack. The country merchants have not yet made their purchases to any considerable extent, and are found less ready with the means of payment than at any previous time during the last three years. In the large cities the dry goods trade is far from prosperous, and both foreign and domestic fabrics have been offered at farther concessions in price. This is most noticeable in foreign fabrics, with which the markets are overstocked, and the auction houses are crowded with goods, most of them of recent importation, which are forced off at a large decline from rates previously current. In localities where rents have advanced the most rapidly, there are evidences of reaction, and speculators in real estate are manifesting less boldness. These are regarded by shrewd observers, less as signs of general derangement than as evidences of returning health. The stringency in money matters will check the extravagance in living, and the tendency to overtrading and speculation. The sacrifice of goods will show the importers that there is a limit to their business, and that their receipts must bear some proportion to the wants of the country if they would reckon upon a profit. In short, the present is a day of rebuke, and there is some evidence that the country is disposed to profit by the lesson.

It is quite certain that even our shrewdest financiers have something yet to learn in the management of railroad affairs. We hinted at this in our last, and have heretofore exposed the popular fallacy that requires one man to do half a dozen things at a time, upon the plea that if he wants anything done he must do it himself. Nearly all the heavy railroad companies of the country are managed

nominally by those who have both head and hands full of something else, and not unfrequently by those, who in addition to such an incumbrance, are also too far from the scene of action. The convention of railroad operators at New York have decided on increasing the tariff of charges, and decreasing the speed and quantity of service on the leading railroads represented. This may save the companies from running behind, but it will not answer in the place of better management, which is now everywhere needed. Would any committee of merchants at New York undertake to be responsible for a mercantile business requiring millions of capital, and carried on at twenty different places beyond the reach of their personal observation? Would they do it as a slight addition to their other cares, to be turned off with a brief occasional notice? Does it make it any easier if the capital is invested in railroad property, and the managers are called a Board of Directors? There is a total want of economy and skill in the management of a large portion of the corporate companies in this country, which is now being felt in a wide-spread depreciation of property thus controlled. In this assertion we design no reflection upon the officers or directors of such companies. Most of them accepted office after urgent solicitation, and a large portion of them give all the time they have to spare from their previous occupations, and quite as much as was expected of them when they were elected. The fault lies, not in the men, but in the system itself, which must be thoroughly remodelled before a high degree of success can be attained, and the difficulties now in the way be fully met and overcome. We would not recommend a niggardly "penny-wise and pound-foolish" policy, but a less wasteful use of the gross receipts must be attained, before the net profits will be such as to justify the continued use of capital for investments of this class. The power is everywhere applied at a disadvantage; the leeches fastened upon a large majority of these works, have hold of the long end of the lever, and apply the force chiefly to their own advantage. In regard to western railroad companies, there is another evil which has grown out of such management. Many roads which were doing a successful business by themselves, have left their proper work and sphere to take stocks in other roads, or in steamboat lines, or in something else which promised an advantage in return for such interference, but not sufficient to justify the course pursued. In a few of these cases the step has been taken honestly by a board of directors, only anxious to advance the corporate interests they have in charge. In other instances the extraordinary policy has been adopted for the private benefit of those who while managing one company, have an equal or greater interest in the improvement requiring the assistance thus improperly afforded. We make these remarks because we deem the matter of much importance at this time, but we wish to guard against any improper inference which may be drawn from them. We do not believe that the evils complained of are so radical that they cannot be cured without a general catastrophe; nor do we believe, as many panic makers assert, that none of the railroads in the country are on a foundation sufficiently stable to support themselves. At the same time we do believe that a thorough reform is essential to permanent success, and that such a reform cannot be too speedily commenced.

The Banks throughout the country have lost more or less by the recent failures, but they are all discounting cautiously, and as far as possible curtailing their operations. The following will show the condition of the New York city banks

at the date of the last weekly returns. As a year has elapsed since the weekly averages were commenced, we give a recapitulation of each statement from the beginning, which will be found very valuable for future reference.—

WEEKLY AVERAGES OF NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Weekending	Average amount of Loans and Discounts.	Average amount of Specie.	Average amount of Circulation.	Average amount of Deposits.
August 6, 1853	\$97,899,499	\$9,746,441	\$9,513,053	\$60,579,797
August 13	94,633,282	10,603,518	9,451,943	57,457,504
August 20	94,074,717	11,082,274	9,389,727	57,307,223
August 27	92,387,618	11,319,040	9,427,191	57,431,891
September 3	91,741,338	11,268,049	9,554,294	57,502,970
September 10	91,108,347	11,380,693	9,597,336	47,545,164
September 17	90,190,589	11,860,235	9,566,723	57,612,301
September 24	90,092,765	11,340,925	9,477,541	58,312,334
October 1	90,149,540	11,231,912	9,521,665	57,968,661
October 8	89,128,998	10,266,602	9,673,458	57,985,760
October 15	87,837,273	11,330,172	9,464,714	59,068,674
October 22	85,367,981	10,303,254	9,388,543	55,748,729
October 29	83,400,321	10,865,672	9,300,350	53,335,462
November 5	83,092,630	11,771,880	9,492,158	55,500,977
November 12	82,882,409	12,823,575	9,287,629	56,201,007
November 19	83,717,622	13,691,324	9,151,443	57,446,424
November 26	84,802,530	13,343,196	9,032,769	58,673,076
December 3	85,824,756	12,830,772	9,133,584	58,435,207
December 10	86,708,028	12,493,760	9,075,704	57,838,076
December 17	87,865,073	12,166,020	7,939,830	58,312,478
December 24	88,766,402	12,074,499	8,872,764	58,154,302
December 31	90,162,106	11,058,478	8,927,013	58,963,976
January 7, 1854	90,133,887	11,506,124	9,075,926	60,833,362
January 14	90,010,012	11,894,453	8,668,314	58,396,956
January 21	90,068,738	11,455,156	8,605,235	59,071,252
January 28	89,759,465	11,117,958	8,642,677	58,239,577
February 4	90,549,577	11,634,653	8,996,657	61,208,466
February 11	91,434,022	11,872,126	8,994,083	61,024,817
February 18	92,698,085	11,742,384	8,354,464	61,826,669
February 25	93,529,716	11,212,693	8,929,314	61,293,645
March 4	94,538,421	10,560,400	9,209,830	61,975,675
March 11	94,279,994	9,832,483	9,137,555	60,226,583
March 18	93,418,929	10,018,456	9,255,781	61,098,605
March 25	92,972,711	10,132,246	9,209,406	59,168,178
April 1	92,825,024	10,264,009	9,395,820	59,478,149
April 8	92,551,808	10,188,141	9,713,215	60,286,839
April 15	91,636,274	11,044,044	9,533,998	60,325,087
April 22	90,376,540	10,526,976	9,353,854	59,225,905
April 29	90,243,049	10,951,153	9,377,687	59,719,381
May 6	90,739,720	11,437,039	9,823,007	63,855,509
May 13	91,245,927	12,382,068	9,507,796	64,203,671
May 20	90,886,726	12,118,043	9,480,018	63,382,661
May 27	90,981,974	10,981,531	9,281,807	61,623,670
June 3	91,916,710	10,281,969	9,381,714	71,702,290
June 10	91,015,171	9,617,180	9,307,889	72,495,859
June 17	90,063,573	10,013,157	9,144,284	71,959,105
June 24	88,751,952	9,628,375	9,009,726	69,598,724
July 1	88,608,491	11,130,800	9,068,253	71,457,984
July 8	88,347,281	12,267,318	9,195,757	72,718,442
July 15	90,437,004	15,074,093	8,837,681	75,227,333
July 22	92,011,870	15,720,309	8,768,289	75,959,082
July 29	92,588,579	15,386,864	8,756,777	74,790,656
August 5	93,723,141	14,468,981	9,124,468	76,378,487
August 12	93,435,057	13,522,023	8,917,179	74,626,389
August 19	82,880,103	14,253,972	8,855,523	73,834,568

We have also compiled a comparative table, embracing the principal items in the quarterly returns of the banks of the State of New York, just received from the Superintendent, compared with the same items of the previous quarters of the year:—

	Sept. 17, 1853.	Dec. 3, 1853.	March 18, 1854.	June 8, 1854.
Loans and discounts ...	\$146,767,770	\$142,656,859	\$150,561,750	\$149,772,965
Stocks	20,787,197	21,458,585	20,832,640	20,641,474
Specie	12,909,249	14,149,769	11,563,778	10,792,429
Cash items	17,654,805	18,175,670	18,587,355	20,551,709
Bank notes	3,207,393	3,448,890	3,120,820	3,591,907
Due from banks	13,264,757	11,609,197	12,262,110	10,793,520
Capital	86,692,075	79,018,980	80,702,396	81,589,239
Circulation	32,762,650	32,573,189	32,371,206	30,956,123
Deposits	77,167,075	78,060,490	81,140,877	82,637,013
Due to banks	28,253,667	20,704,104	24,500,136	22,266,087

THE FOLLOWING IS A CONTINUATION OF THE WEEKLY COMPARISON OF THE BOSTON BANKS:—

	July 24.	July 31.	August 7.	August 14.
Capital	\$30,945,139	\$30,953,135	\$30,966,460	\$31,014,985
Loans and discounts....	49,314,787	49,625,045	50,339,806	50,907,742
Specie	2,934,940	2,892,740	2,904,012	2,873,393
Due from other banks..	9,478,362	8,574,786	8,725,706	8,538,104
Due to other banks	6,826,735	6,454,892	6,373,367	6,637,463
Deposits	12,672,918	13,159,032	13,567,854	13,504,750
Circulation	8,541,494	7,859,255	8,207,597	8,184,828

We also annex a comparative monthly statement of the Massachusetts banks, not including the above:—

	July 1.	August 5.		
Capital	\$22,659,760	\$23,162,750	Inc.	\$502,990
Loans and discounts	41,377,865	41,795,009	"	417,144
Specie	906,560	934,513	"	27,953
Due from other banks.....	3,941,912	3,860,858	Dec.	81,054
Due to other banks	484,138	459,963	"	34,175
Deposits	5,451,106	5,400,748	"	50,358
Circulation.....	16,215,000	15,988,214	"	327,786

The following is the monthly statement of the condition of the New Orleans banks in the leading items, made up on Saturday, 29th July, 1854:—

Banks.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Specie.	Loans payable in full at maturity.
Citizens'	\$1,784,800	\$1,646,347	\$1,674,682	\$2,664,111
Canal	1,302,473	901,865	1,142,155	1,788,450
Louisiana	1,164,009	2,430,460	1,972,285	2,020,891
Louisiana State	1,300,245	3,046,920	2,008,725	3,068,567
Mechanics' and Traders'...	754,366	493,976	963,675
New Orleans	477,110	710,643	328,184	977,334
Southern	262,500	177,861	128,102	426,846
Union	372,062	474,088	190,055	617,837
Total.....	\$6,669,987	\$10,142,550	\$7,938,164	\$12,527,711

As compared with the June statement, it shows a decrease in circulation of \$581,564, in deposits of \$623,971, in loans of \$1,622,594, and in exchange of \$883,628. There is an increase in specie of \$298,574, and in other cash liabilities of \$382,863.

The receipts of gold from California have not been as large as anticipated; but the production at the mines is as large as ever. We annex our usual statement of the business at the mint. The Assay Office in New York will be in operation before our next issue.

DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS.

DEPOSITS FOR JULY.

	From California.	Total Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Philadelphia Mint.....	\$3,910,000	\$3,940,000	\$310,000	\$4,250,000
New Orleans Mint.....	31,863	86,112	127,630	163,742
Total deposits.....	\$3,941,863	\$3,976,112	\$437,630	\$4,413,742

GOLD COINAGE.

	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles	45,409	\$908,180
Eagles	8,500	\$85,000	9,234	92,340
Bars	2,405,812
Half eagles.....
Quarter eagles.....
Three-dollar pieces.....
Dollars.....
Total gold coinage	8,500	\$85,000	54,643	\$3,406,332

SILVER COINAGE.

Half dollars	482,000	\$241,000
Quarter dollars	368,000	\$92,000
Dimes.....	890,000	89,000	880,000	88,000
Dollars.....
Half dimes.....
Three cent pieces
Total silver coinage.....	1,372,000	\$330,000	1,248,000	\$180,000

COPPER COINAGE.

Cents.....	101,816	\$1,018
Total coinage.....	1,380,500	\$415,000	1,404,459	\$3,587,350

The imports of foreign goods into the country continue much larger than generally expected. The total for July at New York is \$149,843 larger than the very large amount for July of last year; \$7,286,093 larger than for the same month of 1852; and \$5,722,300 larger than for the same time in 1851—as will be seen by the annexed comparison:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF JULY.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption.....	\$12,374,701	\$11,453,117	\$16,725,643	\$14,253,797
Entered for warehousing	1,022,725	423,913	2,080,908	3,963,573
Free goods	1,027,481	915,154	1,072,502	1,812,917
Specie and bullion	81,143	150,067	199,454	198,063
Total entered at the port	\$14,506,050	\$12,942,257	\$20,078,507	\$20,228,350
Withdrawn from warehouse.....	1,167,644	1,095,800	1,702,448	636,832

Upon analyzing the total for July, 1854, we find the increase, as compared with the preceding year, wholly in free goods, there being a decided falling off in the dutiable entered for consumption; and although there is an increase in the total entered for warehouse, yet it is not sufficient to swell the receipts of dutiable merchandise to the amount reached last year. There is quite a falling off in the goods withdrawn from warehouse, so that the total thrown on the market at that port has been less by \$3,000,000 than for July of the previous year. The total imports at New York since January 1st are now nearly as large as for the corresponding seven months of last year; but this amount has been made by an increase of \$2,500,000 in free goods, and \$4,000,000 in the goods entered for warehousing. The withdrawals from warehouse have also increased, the stock having been drawn down during the first few months of the year.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK DURING THE SEVEN MONTHS ENDING JULY 31ST.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption.....	\$70,762,893	\$58,498,029	\$92,558,807	\$84,701,111
Entered for warehousing	7,486,712	5,451,668	13,587,589	17,690,323
Free goods	6,165,125	8,259,939	9,669,118	11,044,201
Specie and bullion.....	1,480,476	2,028,248	1,099,516	1,606,090
Total entered at the port.....	\$86,895,407	\$74,237,884	\$117,915,030	\$115,041,725
Withdrawn from warehouse. ...	6,879,985	9,622,577	8,227,102	11,344,876

The receipts of dry goods show about the same relative changes as seen in the total imports; but the table presents some interesting features. The amount for July is \$798,042 less than for July, 1853; but \$4,090,914 more than for the same month of 1852, and \$2,470,660 more than for July, 1851:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF JULY.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$2,354,643	\$2,187,187	\$4,097,250	\$3,154,898
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,193,817	1,089,736	1,847,216	1,751,517
Manufactures of silk.....	3,933,092	3,074,265	4,824,913	3,625,613
Manufactures of flax.....	611,250	488,586	719,307	590,664
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	453,476	530,595	569,761	637,207
Total	\$8,546,278	\$7,370,369	\$12,058,447	\$9,759,899

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$318,717	\$237,434	\$531,250	\$631,958
Manufactures of cotton	157,371	96,970	98,255	237,989
Manufactures of silk.....	265,709	149,394	233,066	352,623
Manufactures of flax.....	37,782	32,064	18,957	39,000
Miscellaneous dry goods	21,109	12,416	32,796	52,100
Total withdrawn.....	\$800,688	\$528,278	\$914,324	\$1,313,670
Add entered for consumption....	8,546,278	7,370,369	12,058,447	9,759,899
Total thrown upon the market.	\$9,346,966	\$7,898,647	\$12,972,771	\$11,073,569

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	\$341,315	\$126,623	\$273,785	\$1,085,553
Manufactures of cotton	129,572	72,226	119,021	334,278
Manufactures of silk	268,318	130,624	144,701	483,477
Manufactures of flax	45,003	16,299	9,488	85,703
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	27,465	21,556	21,121	79,701
Total.....	\$811,673	\$367,328	\$568,206	\$2,068,712
Add entered for consumption.....	8,546,278	7,370,369	12,058,447	9,759,899
Total entered at the port	\$9,357,951	\$7,737,697	\$12,626,653	\$11,828,611

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR SEVEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	\$8,936,521	\$7,464,841	\$14,913,222	\$11,903,751
Manufactures of cotton	6,978,178	5,715,788	9,469,017	10,240,642
Manufactures of silk	15,742,584	12,242,731	20,679,454	17,165,873
Manufactures of flax	4,147,367	3,423,990	4,918,869	4,303,671
Miscellaneous dry goods	2,373,047	2,492,455	3,356,511	3,436,176
Total.....	\$38,177,697	\$31,339,805	\$53,337,071	\$47,050,113

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	\$896,547	\$1,079,138	\$1,164,654	\$1,905,570
Manufactures of cotton	1,008,874	1,125,786	701,490	1,782,060
Manufactures of silk	858,926	1,401,176	1,008,372	1,798,661
Manufactures of flax	397,349	615,523	149,641	566,445
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	260,821	239,265	247,543	261,881
Total.....	\$3,422,517	\$4,460,888	\$3,271,700	\$6,314,617
Add entered for consumption....	38,177,697	31,339,805	53,337,071	47,050,113
Total thrown on the market.	\$41,600,214	\$35,800,693	\$56,608,771	\$53,364,730

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	\$1,165,289	\$915,183	\$1,654,251	\$3,181,360
Manufactures of cotton	1,038,237	640,864	861,092	1,878,643
Manufactures of silk	1,238,440	1,652,118	1,115,548	2,338,213
Manufactures of flax.....	390,664	223,779	190,745	576,593
Miscellaneous dry goods	229,890	222,545	262,912	284,071
Total.....	\$4,062,520	\$3,654,489	\$4,084,548	\$8,258,880
Add entered for consumption....	38,177,697	31,339,805	53,337,071	47,050,113
Total entered at the port ...	\$42,240,217	\$34,994,294	\$57,421,619	\$55,308,993

By the above it will be seen that the receipts of cotton goods have increased, while the total of all other descriptions have decreased. In woollens the most noticeable feature has been the large increase in the stock thrown into warehouse. The total entries of dry goods at New York for the first seven months of 1854, are \$2,112,626 less than the very large total for the corresponding period of 1853, but \$20,314,699 larger than for the same time in 1852, and

\$13,068,776 larger than for the same time in 1851. The cash duties received upon imports, being mostly collected upon the total entered for consumption, and the withdrawals from warehouse have not varied in the same proportion as the receipts. The following will show the total received at New York for the month and from January 1st:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
In July	\$3,538,400 72	\$3,240,787 18	\$4,640,107 15	\$4,045,745 78
Previous six mos.	16,652,665 60	14,250,312 88	21,167,329 50	19,737,960 76
Total, seven mos.,	\$20,211,065 72	\$17,491,100 06	\$25,807,436 65	\$23,783,706 54

We have heretofore noticed the probable decline in the exports to foreign ports, owing to the limited supply of produce at the seaport; the total shipments in July were, therefore, larger than anticipated. Exclusive of specie, the exports from New York were \$1,390,871 less than for July, 1853, but \$940,446 more than for July, 1852, and \$777,744 more than for July, 1851. The exports of specie were smaller than for the corresponding month of either of the three preceding years. We annex a comparison of the several totals:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF JULY.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce.....	\$3,188,027	\$2,965,542	\$4,882,957	\$3,768,661
Foreign merchandise (free).....	2,311	20,759	313,192	252,030
Foreign merchandise (dutiabie)...	284,397	325,782	447,201	231,788
Specie	6,004,170	2,971,499	3,924,612	2,922,452
Total exports	\$9,478,905	\$6,283,532	\$9,567,962	\$7,174,931
Total, exclusive of specie	3,474,735	3,312,033	5,643,350	4,252,479

The total shipments from the same port for the seven months from January 1st, show an increase (exclusive of specie) of \$4,763,316 as compared with the corresponding period of last year, \$10,168,765 as compared with the same time in 1852, and \$10,282,752 as compared with the same time in 1851. The exports of specie for the same time are larger than in either of the previous two years, but nearly six millions behind the total for the first seven months of 1851:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR SEVEN MONTHS, ENDING JULY 31ST.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce.....	\$25,644,866	\$25,111,363	\$30,305,247	\$34,966,101
Foreign merchandise (free).....	373,656	541,978	1,010,669	964,603
Foreign merchandise (dutiabie)...	2,266,139	2,745,307	2,488,181	2,636,709
Specie	25,097,685	15,595,508	12,579,594	19,108,319
Total exports	\$53,382,346	\$43,994,156	\$46,383,691	\$57,675,732
Total, exclusive of specie	28,284,661	28,398,648	33,804,097	38,567,413

We look for a decline in the exports of produce, until the stock at the seaboard shall be largely increased and prices diminished. The following will show the comparative shipments from New York to foreign ports of some of the leading articles of domestic produce from January 1st to Aug. 19th, 1854:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF
DOMESTIC PRODUCE, FROM JANUARY 1ST TO AUG. 19TH:—

	1853.	1854.		1853.	1854.
Ashes—pots.....bbls	7,308	5,884	Naval stores.....bbls	291,213	409,679
pearls	513	799	Oils—whale.....galls	219,148	123,573
Beeswax.....lbs	132,962	189,433	sperm	723,074	290,438
Breadstuffs—			lard	42,992	22,653
Wheat flour...bbls	957,361	822,039	linseed	6,547	3,613
Rye flour.....	1,501	9,191	Provisions—		
Corn meal.....	28,770	51,753	Pork.....bbls	46,458	65,017
Wheatbush.	2,301,077	1,546,502	Beef.....	34,273	42,135
Rye		315,158	Cut meats....lbs.	6,917,865	14,867,041
Oats	43,287	34,237	Butter.....	1,116,020	1,549,676
Barley			Cheese	2,628,688	3,117,938
Corn	590,556	2,328,038	Lard	4,720,782	9,729,681
Candles—mold...boxes	33,698	35,454	Rice	13,407	18,013
sperm.....	3,330	4,080	Tallow	2,278,897	3,403,069
Coal.....tons	21,775	15,775	Tobacco, crude...pkgs	13,908	25,840
Cotton.....bales	192,649	215,591	Do., manufactured.lbs.	4,015,823	1,774,277
Hay.....	3,405	2,996	Whalebone	2,353,590	947,937
Hops.....	272	629			

This shows a decided falling off in the shipments of wheat as far as quantity is concerned, since January 1st, although previous to that there was a large increase; but there has been no falling off in value, the 1,500,000 bushels producing as much this year, as 2,300,000 bushels did last. The same is true to a still greater extent in flour. In Indian corn there has been an enormous increase in the quantity, as well as very considerable augmentation in price. The exports of meat provisions, and cheese, lard, &c., have been very large. The whole table will be found worthy of a careful examination. In regard to the incoming crops, opinions are much changed since our last publication. The long continued drouth prevailing with but few exceptions from the Atlantic to the farthest bounds of Missouri throughout all of the Northern States, has cut off to a considerable extent the crop of Indian corn. The grain crop was saved, although from other causes it was not quite as large as expected; but the streams are dry, and many of the mills which depend on water power are silent. The corn crop was much needed, pork having been high, and liberal preparations based on a large yield of this cereal having been already made both for fattening swine, and for export. Flour has almost always declined in August, but we are writing now just at the close of the month, and find an upward tendency at the seaboard, and an actual scarcity of flour for consumption in many agricultural districts. There will be no famine, and when the farmers are ready to sell, the supply of breadstuffs will be found large enough to feed our own mouths and leave a liberal surplus; but as long as the present excitement continues, the farmers are hoarding, and thus the burden of high rates is now aggravated. When the extent of the corn crop is once settled, and wheat comes to market, there will be such a competition as to ruin, no doubt, many of the speculators. This, however, will carry the trade at current, or even higher rates, well into the fall.

THE NEW YORK COTTON MARKET

FOR THE MONTH ENDING AUGUST 21.

PREPARED FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE BY UHLHORN & FREDERICKSON, BROKERS,
148 PEARL STREET, NEW YORK.

Transactions in cotton, notwithstanding our light stock, have during the past month been to a fair extent. The extreme dry weather has much interfered with the operations of our own spinners, many of whom have been running short time in consequence of the want of water. For Liverpool the business continues of a mixed character, while to the various continental ports a larger portion of the month's business has been directed. Prices have varied but little either here or on the other side, but the tendency on the whole has been against buyers.

The market here for the week ending July 24th was extremely active. The sales were estimated at 13,000 bales. Speculators purchased freely, and the market closed firmly at the following quotations:—

PRICES ADOPTED JULY 24TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	8	8	8	8½
Middling.....	9½	9½	9½	10
Middling fair.....	10½	11	11½	11½
Fair.....	11½	11½	12	12½

Under the influence of foreign advices received during the week ending July 31st, our market lost the buoyancy of the previous week, and on all grades up to middling a decline of ¼c. per lb. was submitted to. Holders, however, did not offer freely, and the small amount on sale enabled them to show a firmness "if they had it not." The week's sales were estimated at 6,500 bales, at the annexed figures:—

PRICES ADOPTED JULY 31 FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	7½	7½	7½	7½
Middling.....	9½	9½	9½	9½
Middling fair.....	10½	10½	11	11½
Fair.....	11½	11½	11½	12½

The week following the market assumed a dull and heavy aspect, with some irregularity in the few sales made as regards prices. The week's sales were estimated at 4,500 bales, and including some purchases made in transitu. A better supply was offered without, however, inducing operations, and the market closed quietly at the following quotations:—

PRICES ADOPTED AUGUST 7TH FOR THE FOLLOWING VARIETIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	7½	7½	7½	7½
Middling.....	9½	9½	9½	9½
Middling fair.....	10½	10½	11½	11½
Fair.....	11½	11½	11½	12½

The transactions for the week ending August 14th continued on a limited scale; but prices, owing to a continental demand for the better grades, showed more firmness at the close of the week, with sales of 6,000 bales. There was but little done for Liverpool and our own spinners. The market closed steady at rates annexed:—

PRICES ADOPTED AUGUST 14TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	7½	7½	7½	7½
Middling.....	9½	9½	9½	9½
Middling fair.....	10½	10½	11½	11½
Fair.....	11½	11½	11½	12½

The market for the week ending August 21st continued firm; the sales, however, did not exceed 5,000 bales—excluding a list of 900 boxes of Texas cotton in Boston sold here. Holders, believing that their stocks will be needed before the arrival of the new crop, hesitate in offering, and buyers pause before making new engagements, believing that the prospects of the growing crop warrant a lower range of prices. The quantity taken by our own manufacturers during the past month is smaller than usual, and we think they must be free purchasers before long. The manufactured article, however, has lessened in value, and with their other engagements, together with the scarcity of money, will cause many to purchase lightly for some time.

PRICES ADOPTED AUGUST 21ST FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	10
Middling fair	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	11	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Fair	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$

NEW COTTON.

Two bales of the new crop were received at New Orleans from Texas on the 25th July, being fifteen days earlier than last year. They were sold at the fancy price of 11c. per lb., the classification being about middling. Weight of the two bales, 882 lbs. Thirteen bales new crop were received at New Orleans up to 12th August. At Mobile and Savannah a few bales of the new crop have been received; they are represented to be of good color and staple. Two bales of new cotton were received here per Cahawba, from Mobile, on the 17th August—one consigned to Mr. Charles Delling, and one to Messrs. Brewer & Caldwell, and classed "middling" and "good middling," somewhat cut in ginning, but of good color. Thirteen and thirteen-and-a-half cents per lb. were paid for them—fancy prices—and shipped per Atlantic to Liverpool. Last year the two first bales were received here on the 22d August from Charleston, classed "fair," and sold at 13c. per lb.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

THE BANK OF MONTREAL IN 1854.

The annual general meeting of the Bank of Montreal was held at Montreal on the 5th of June. The report submitted stated, that after paying 7 per cent dividend, and providing for other heavy charges (a forgery resulting in a loss of £2,000 at the Brantford agency,) there had been added £65,103 to the rest, which was thus raised to £171,320. The report submitted stated that, assuming the operations of the bank will meet with fair success during the ensuing six months, the rest would be increased to two hundred thousand pounds by December, paying, besides, the usual half-yearly dividend of 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. After that period the directors expect to pay $\frac{1}{2}$ of one per cent dividend, and continue adding to the rest until it reaches £250,000, when the whole profits may be safely divided within the shape of increased dividends, or by occasional bonus. Though the directors had been as liberal in their discounts as circumstances would warrant, they had not been able to satisfy all the applications that had been made to them for perfectly legitimate business purposes. The trade of the country is annually augmenting in extent and value; it is therefore intended to apply to the legislature for permission to farther increase the capital stock by £500,000, to be called up within a period not exceeding five years. The original capital was £750,000, to which new capital, amounting to £242,760, was not long ago added. The sum of £1,250 was voted to the Hon. P. McGill, for his valuable services as president during the past year.

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF CHARLESTON.

We have received from an anonymous correspondent a pamphlet, embracing the proceedings (and reports,) at the Annual Meeting of the Stockholders of the Bank of Charleston, South Carolina, held at their Banking House on Monday, July 10th, 1854. The report of the President and Directors of the Bank, presents a favorable aspect of the affairs of that Institution. It is accompanied by the usual statement of the condition of the Bank on the 30th of June, 1854. It appears by the Profit and Loss account that the net profits of the year's business, after deducting the current expenses, amount to \$336,232; from which two semi-annual dividends, of 5 per cent each, have been declared, amounting to \$316,020, leaving, as reserve profits to be carried to the credit of the Contingent Fund account, the sum of \$20,152. The cashier's statement, (a condensed summary of the immediate liabilities and resources,) exhibits an excess of available resources over immediate liabilities amounting to \$1,109,014.

The tabular statement which follows, shows the monthly condition of the Bank, in its several departments, for the year. We have omitted in this table the cent column, to accommodate it to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*.

MONTHLY CONDITION OF THE BANK OF CHARLESTON, S. C., FROM THE 30TH OF JUNE, 1853, TO THE 30TH OF JUNE, 1854, INCLUSIVE.

	1854.											
	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.
LIABILITIES.												
Capital Stock.....	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800	3,160,800
Bills in Circulation....	1,987,807	1,888,192	1,908,680	1,914,737	2,180,763	2,391,483	2,142,409	2,093,946	1,815,892	1,697,572	1,446,802	1,376,094
Net Profits on hand....	233,520	237,520	209,492	364,676	423,666	437,762	302,051	320,175	333,908	365,070	386,213	410,396
Bal. due other Banks, &c.	855,714	851,629	723,260	553,565	509,372	500,560	1,082,083	1,321,666	775,502	855,664	996,906	672,686
Private and Pub. Deposits	642,055	508,802	491,235	481,284	518,028	544,924	572,801	622,031	611,189	568,757	544,238	488,630
Total	6,879,997	6,666,944	6,574,468	6,475,062	6,797,631	7,055,529	7,260,135	7,517,718	6,697,289	6,647,864	6,434,960	6,108,607
RESOURCES.												
Specie on hand.....	508,438	417,695	281,315	371,500	358,580	318,756	305,487	341,434	287,526	280,476	339,463	295,577
Real Estate.....	35,704	35,704	35,704	35,704	35,704	35,704	35,704	35,704	35,704	35,704	35,704	35,704
Bills of other Banks....	127,063	96,179	46,331	87,677	89,258	86,395	82,992	61,234	105,229	82,385	44,409	97,124
Bal. due from Banks, &c.	1,040,056	596,146	730,398	815,203	479,218	448,322	546,541	1,800,761	580,092	715,430	611,750	700,646
Notes Discounted.....	1,982,711	2,058,324	2,102,674	2,154,633	2,255,492	2,317,638	2,285,725	2,223,107	2,085,910	2,067,397	2,105,872	2,092,814
Domestic Exchange....	1,688,143	1,837,905	1,854,459	2,123,445	2,612,993	2,611,942	2,623,657	2,537,380	2,361,104	2,204,957	2,043,142	1,400,277
Foreign Exchange.....	709,296	830,533	676,836	86,319	150,328	331,549	492,847	174,574	364,718	379,604	443,546	446,830
Bonds	119,548	119,548	168,734	168,734	168,734	185,566	177,938	164,666	163,038	165,288	165,288	164,791
Money invested in Stocks	653,185	635,185	656,185	656,185	659,185	659,185	651,248	651,248	651,248	651,248	665,372	665,372
Suspended Debt.....	16,748	21,812	21,926	35,137	38,234	60,269	58,000	27,607	32,721	65,369	80,410	209,268
Total	6,879,997	6,666,944	6,574,468	6,475,062	6,797,631	7,055,529	7,260,135	7,517,718	6,697,289	6,647,864	6,434,960	6,108,607

DOMESTIC EXCHANGES IN THE UNITED STATES.

QUOTATIONS OF DOMESTIC EXCHANGES, JULY 1ST AND 8TH, 1854, RECEIVED AT THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT FROM ASSISTANT TREASURERS AND DEPOSITARIES.

At Boston	Upon Boston	New York	Philadelphia	Baltimore	Washington	Richmond	Charleston
At Boston	1 dia.	1-10 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.
New York	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.
Philadelphia	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.
Charleston	Par	Par	Par	Par	Par	Par	Par
St. Louis	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.
Baltimore	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.
Richmond	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.
Cincinnati	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.
Pittsburgh	Par	Par	Par	Par	Par	Par	Par
Buffalo	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.
Norfolk	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.
Wilmington	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.
Savannah	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.
Nashville	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.
Jeffersonville	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.
Chicago	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.
Detroit	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.	prem.
San Francisco	1 to 2 prem.	1 to 2 prem.	1 to 2 prem.	1 to 2 prem.	1 to 2 prem.	1 to 2 prem.	1 to 2 prem.
At Boston	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.
New York	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.
Philadelphia	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.	Par to 1-10 prem.
Charleston	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.
St. Louis	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.
Baltimore	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.
Richmond	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.
Mobile	No sale.	No sale.	No sale.	No sale.	No sale.	No sale.	No sale.
Cincinnati	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.	to 1-10 prem.
Pittsburgh	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.
Buffalo	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.	1 dia.
Norfolk	None	None	None	None	None	None	None
Wilmington	None	None	None	None	None	None	None
Savannah	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.
Nashville	Par	Par	Par	Par	Par	Par	Par
Jeffersonville	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.
Chicago	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.
Detroit	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.	1 prem.
San Francisco	3 to 2 prem.	No sale.	to 2 prem.	to 2 prem.	to 2 prem.	to 2 prem.	to 2 prem.

Sixty days' drafts on London, at New York, 109½; Sixty days' drafts on Paris, at New York, 5.11½; 8th July quotation.

DEPOSITS IN THE UNITED STATES TREASURY.

The following table, derived from the *Economist*, will show the amount at the several depositories, subject to the draft of the United States Treasury on the 26th of June, being the close of each fiscal year, after paying the interest on national debt:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Treasury, Washington	\$77,174 48	\$77,415 71	\$340,539 44	\$337,043 60
Assistant Treasurer—				
Boston.....	966,678 72	2,273,495 26	4,336,966 50
New York.....	813,508 70	3,584,504 70	6,949,542 06	8,398,253 27
Philadelphia.....	1,800,616 76	1,238,675 94	803,955 88	1,626,386 99
Charleston.....	934,176 02	55,878 96	28,559 66	35,357 68
New Orleans.....	306,298 60	807,682 39	1,136,781 25	371,079 76
St. Louis.....	795,667 31	378,339 16	415,353 25	2,899,037 82
Depository—Buffalo..	33,359 43	62,339 01	24,687 44	18,124 94
Baltimore.....	31,439 66	16,300 89	36,090 07
Richmond, Va.....	20,584 27	48,432 70	27,790 99	144,327 59
Norfolk, Va.....	35,120 82	10,620 38	8,706 77	101,712 23
Wilmington, N. C..	666 72	10,254 50	7,791 54	14,569 34
Savannah, Ga.....	28,039 58	60,670 79	49,390 01	124,944 96
Mobile, Ala.....	1,428 09	31,776 61	23,353 02	133,698 76
Nashville, Tenn....	27,300 78	26,095 63	19,350 91	25,620 30
Cincinnati, Ohio...	3,412 43	86,111 58	87,386 14	68,034 55
Pittsburg, Pa.....	21,544 66	1,800 05	629 03	9,340 32
Cincinnati (late)...	90,387 31	3,301 37	3,301 37
San Francisco.....	1,886 33	209,444 78	1,180,668 42	353,654 37
Dubuque.....	3,301 37	700 00	93,515 45	140,513 05
Little Rock, Ark...	43,746 11	13,468 72	59,747 08	71,426 46
Jeffersonville, Ind..	42,140 96	60,437 34	95,401 90	32,924 04
Chicago, Ill.....	18,616 03	18,380 82	59,410 75	35,090 10
Detroit, Mich.....	9,106 01	7,370 79	23,988 16	305,811 33
Tallahassee, Fa....	13,676 78	8,771 86	1,152 91	14,517 71
Mint, Philadelphia...	5,711,150 00	5,631,780 00	7,112,254 16	7,010,854 16
Branches—Charlotte..	32,000 00	32,000 00	32,000 00	32,000 00
Dahlonaga.....	26,850 00	26,850 00	26,850 00	26,850 00
New Orleans.....	1,100,000 00	960,000 00	1,720,778 67	2,094,731 05
San Francisco.....	500,000 00
Total.....	11,991,159 62	14,449,222 60	22,652,693 42	29,298,942 45
Deduct suspense acc't	2,536 74	2,486 66	2,386 66	2,204 72
	11,988,622 88	14,446,735 94	22,650,306 76	29,296,737 73
Difference in transfers	1,015,470 00	1,514,000 00	246,000 00	407,925 00
Net am't subj't to draft	\$13,004,092 88	\$15,960,735 94	\$22,896,306 76	\$28,888,812 73

ASSAY OF AUSTRALIAN GOLD.

E. DAVY, Assay Master at Melbourne, has made an experimental assay of Australian gold. It shows an extraordinary difference in value, being no less than 11s. 2d. per ounce between the highest and lowest samples. The following is the official return:—

SIX PARCELS OF GOLD MELTED AND ASSAYED—TOTAL QUANTITY 64 oz. 13 dwts. 6 grs.

Parcel.	oz. dwt. gr.	Fineness.	Value per oz.	Total value.
No. 1.....	1 8 8	23 30-32	£4 4 7	£5 19 9
No. 2.....	14 10 16	23 23-32	4 2 9	60 17 2
No. 3.....	9 9 10	23 24 32	4 3 11	39 14 8
No. 4.....	0 18 13	20 25-32	3 13 5	3 8 0
No. 5.....	35 8 2	22 15-32	3 19 4	140 8 8
No. 6.....	2 18 5	22 11-32	3 19 0	11 9 11

64 13 6

£261, 18 2

Average value per oz., £4 1s.; government charge, 1 oz. 10 dwts.; value £6 1s. 6d.

DIVIDENDS OF BANKS IN MASSACHUSETTS OUT OF BOSTON.

Banks.	Location.	Div. 1848.	Div. 1849.	Div. 1850.	Div. 1851.	Div. 1852.	Average in 5 years.
Ocean	Newburyport	10	10	10	10	10	10
Lowell	Lowell	9	10	10	10	10	9 8-10
Agricultural....	Pittsfield....	10	10	10	9½	8	9 5-10
Appleton	Lowell	10	10	8	9	9	9 2-10
Haverhill	Haverhill....	9½	10	9	9½	8	9 2-10
Plymouth	Plymouth....	7½	8	10	10	10	9 1-10
Brighton	Brighton....	8	8½	9½	10	9	9
Northampton...	Northampton	8	9	9	9	9	8 8-10
Merchants'	New Bedford	7	7	8	13	8½	8 7-10
Bristol County.	Taunton	8	8	8	8	10	8 4-10
Bunker Hill...	Charlestown.	8	8	8	8	8	8
Chicopee	Springfield..	8	8	8	8	8	8
Dedham	Dedham....	8	8	8	8	8	8
Hingham	Hingham	8	8	8	8	8	8
Merrimack	Haverhill....	8	8	8	9	7	8
Railroad.....	Lowell	8	8	8	8	8	8
Quincy Stone...	Quincy....	8	7½	8	8	8	7 9-10
Marine.....	New Bedford	6½	7	7	10	8½	7 8-10
Andover.....	Andover....	7½	8	8	8	7	7 7-10
Bedford Com'cl	New Bedford	6	7	7	10	8½	7 7-10
Pacific.....	Nantucket ..	6	6½	8	8½	9½	7 7-10
Peoples'	Roxbury....	8	7½	7	8	8	7 7-10
Citizens'	Worcester....	6	8	8	8	8	7 6-10
Charles River..	Cambridge...	6	7	8	8	8	7 4-10
Commercial ...	Salem.....	6	7½	8	8	7½	7 4-10
Central.....	Worcester....	6½	7	7	8	8	7 3-10
Quinsigamond..	Worcester....	6½	7	7½	8	7½	7 3-10
Worcester	Worcester....	6	7½	8	7½	7½	7 3-10
Asiatic	Salem.....	6	7	7	7	8	7
Naumkeag	Salem.....	7	7	7	7	7	7
Springfield....	Springfield..	7	7	7	7	7	7
Bay State.....	Lawrence....	5	8	7½	7	7	6 9-10
Framingham ...	Framingham	8	7	6	6½	7	6 7-10
Warren.....	Danvers....	6	6½	7	7	7	6 7-10
Wrentham	Wrentham...	6	6	6	6	6½	6 1-10
Mechanics'	Newburyport	6	6	6	6	6	6
Machinists'....	Taunton....	6	6	6	6	6	6
Massasoit	Fall River...	6	6	6	6	6	6
Salem	Salem.....	6	6	6	6	6	6
Neponset.....	Canton	6	6	5	6	6	5 8-10
Amount of Dividends..		\$557,665	\$604,630	\$630,720	\$687,070	\$725,836	

EXTRA DIVIDENDS.—The following banks made extra dividends (not included in the table) during the five years: In 1848, the Central Bank of Worcester, 9 per cent, amounting to \$9,000; Chicopee Bank, of Springfield, 6 per cent, \$12,000; Dedham Bank, 4 per cent, \$6,000; Brighton Bank, 5 per cent, \$10,000; Framingham Bank, 5 per cent, \$7,500. In 1849, the People's Bank, of Roxbury, 6 per cent, \$6,000; in 1850, the Bay State Bank, of Lawrence, 3 per cent, \$2,582 69; in 1852, the Dedham Bank, 4 per cent, \$8,000.—*Boston Daily Courier.*

EXTRAORDINARY COUNTERFEIT OF MEXICAN DOLLARS.

Some months since the Secretary of the Treasury gave instructions to the United States Mint, to collect specimens of counterfeit coins in circulation, for the purpose of examination and report. This has led to the discovery of one of a very singular character. The Washington Union, which makes the affair public, states that the piece purports to be a Mexican dollar, coined at the city of Mexico in 1851. Two pieces have been assayed, and give an average fineness of 776 thousandths, and a consequent value of 91½ cents in silver: but strange to say, the amount of gold contained in them is sufficient to add 12 cents to the value of each, after paying the charge of

separating, making a net value of 103½ cents; and if to this the usual premium on silver is added, the worth of this counterfeit coin is actually 109 cents.

The quality of the silver in these dollars proves them to be a spurious issue. There is also an irregularity in the letters MEXICANA, which is regarded as a test for throwing them out, as we learn from a source familiar with them in Mexico, where they appear to have had at times a considerable circulation.

The silver produced by the Mexican mines is understood to contain gold, but generally too small an amount to defray the expense of parting. In making the coins in question, it would seem that silver more auriferous than usual had fallen into hands capable of the double dishonesty of cheating the public and themselves at the same time.

Though there are probably some specimens of this singular counterfeit among the Mexican dollars in circulation, it is not at all probable that they are sufficiently numerous in this country to excite attention other than as curiosities.

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF WISCONSIN, JULY 3, 1854.

RESOURCES.						
Names of banks.	Loans and discounts, except to directors & brokers.			Bills of solvent banks on hand.	Total resources.	
	Stocks.	Specie.				
The State Bank, Madison	\$78,994	\$50,000	\$16,136	\$18,064	\$204,810	
Wis. Marine and Fire Ins. Co., Milwaukee.....	288,986	50,000	39,833	47,662	525,107	
Bank of Racine, Racine.....	104,808	53,134	12,346	20,825	209,819	
Rock River Bank, Beloit.....	65,461	53,000	13,946	10,989	164,948	
City Bank of Kenosha, Kenosha.....	91,352	54,500	6,207	11,500	186,326	
State Bank of Wisconsin, Milwaukee	370,856	143,750	18,704	31,698	616,052	
Wisconsin Bank, Mineral Point.....	65,504	50,000	14,825	3,394	140,280	
Farmers' and Miller's Bank, Milwaukee	63,836	73,590	11,938	4,423	174,179	
Jefferson County Bank, Watertown.....	55,815	50,000	16,079	2,001	127,656	
Badger State Bank, Janesville.....	71,218	25,773	16,542	44,562	165,378	
Oshkosh City Bank, Oshkosh.....	65,807	50,000	9,309	11,896	163,104	
Racine County Bank, Racine.....	129,882	26,678	8,212	10,671	202,829	
Exchange Bank, Milwaukee	97,222	27,006	11,071	16,845	206,607	
City Bank of Racine, Racine.....	10,020	37,411	10,805	6,757	104,866	
Bank of the West, Madison*.....	26,980	105,130	7,770	6,879	184,245	
Bank of Fond du Lac, Fond du Lac	82,177	26,830	10,966	11,079	150,699	
Bank of Commerce, Milwaukee†.....	51,030	42,662	9,129	10,329	138,991	
Columbia County Bank, Portage City‡.....	23,304	26,840	5,408	8,567	71,453	
Fox River Bank, Green Bay§.....	11,759	28,000	1,625	5,491	65,098	
Total.....	1,755,079	974,308	240,909	283,634	3,782,466	
LIABILITIES.						
Names of banks.	Capital.	Registered notes in circulation.	Due to others, not included under either of the above heads.			Total liabilities.
			Depositors on demand.			
The State Bank, Madison.....	\$50,000	\$50,000	\$54,535	\$50,275	\$204,810	
Wis. Marine and Fire Ins. Co., Milwaukee.....	100,000	45,695	232,717	146,694	525,107	
Bank of Racine, Racine.....	50,000	48,397	103,304	8,117	209,819	
Rock River Bank, Beloit.....	50,000	47,272	63,692	3,984	164,948	
City Bank of Kenosha, Kenosha	50,000	48,416	78,220	9,689	186,326	
State Bank of Wisconsin, Milwaukee.....	250,000	106,089	162,357	97,605	616,052	
Wisconsin Bank, Mineral Point.....	50,000	49,998	35,031	25,259	140,280	
Farmers' and Miller's Bank, Milwaukee	50,000	49,826	30,671	43,621	174,179	
Jefferson County Bank, Watertown	50,000	47,624	11,494	18,538	127,656	
Badger State Bank, Janesville.....	25,000	24,908	99,768	15,702	165,378	
Oshkosh City Bank, Oshkosh.....	50,000	49,992	32,276	10,842	143,104	
Racine County Bank, Racine	100,000	24,992	49,526	28,310	202,829	
Exchange Bank, Milwaukee	50,000	24,964	85,915	46,428	206,607	
City Bank of Racine, Racine.....	50,000	34,991	16,481	3,393	104,866	
Bank of the West, Madison*.....	100,000	34,721	40,955	8,569	184,245	
Bank of Fond du Lac, Fond du Lac.....	25,000	22,430	84,141	19,127	150,699	
Bank of Commerce, Milwaukee†.....	100,000	26,548	7,502	4,941	138,991	
Columbia County Bank, Portage City‡.....	25,000	24,993	13,128	8,331	71,453	
Fox River Bank, Green Bay§.....	25,000	25,000	9,393	5,704	65,098	
Total.....	1,250,000	786,216	1,211,111	535,138	3,782,466	

a Reported as profit and loss.

* Commenced business 16th March, 1854.
Commenced business 12th May, 1854.

† Commenced business 13th April, 1854.
‡ Commenced business 13th June, 1854.

The preceding tables we have compiled from the official statement of William M. Dennis, Bank Controller of the State of Wisconsin. We have given only the leading features of each bank, but in the summary below we give the totals of all the banks, embracing those included and those omitted in the tables:—

RESOURCES OF ALL THE BANKS.

Loans & discounts, except to directors and brokers	\$1,755,079 11	Cash items	\$95,459 07
Due from directors.....	49,770 79	Real estate	300 00
Due from brokers	42,613 92	Loss and expense account.	21,727 88
Over-drafts	18,967 48	Bills of solvent banks on hand.....	283,634 50
Stocks	974,308 33	Bills of suspended banks.	283 00
Specie	240,909 73	Due from banks	268,308 00

Total resources of the nineteen banks \$3,782,466 08

LIABILITIES OF ALL THE BANKS.

Capital....	\$1,250,000 00	Due to depositors on demand	\$1,211,111 33
Registered notes in cir- culation	786,216 00	Due to others, not included under the above heads ..	535,138 75

Total liabilities of the nineteen banks..... \$3,782,466 08

SHIPMENTS OF GOLD AND COIN FROM SAN FRANCISCO.

The San Francisco *Price Current and Shipping List* furnishes a statement of the shipments of California gold dust and coin from San Francisco, for the six months commencing January 1st and ending June 30th, 1854. From the *Price Current*, &c. we condense the following statement:—

EPITOME OF CALIFORNIA GOLD SHIPMENTS.

New York, (gold dust).....	\$12,752,720 94
New Orleans	34,000 00
London	1,012,405 20
Panama.....	31,281 36
Shanghai	25,218 89
Hong Kong, &c.....	150,428 12
Calcutta	10,000 00
Valparaiso	20,357 00
Total	\$14,046,411 51
Preceding three months	10,679,170 23
Total for the first six months of 1854.....	\$24,725,581 74
Total for the first six months of 1853.....	28,989,552 74
Decrease.....	\$4,263,971 00

The manifest of coin shipped from the port of San Francisco, for the quarter ending July 1st, 1854, is as follows:—

COIN SHIPPED FROM CALIFORNIA TO—

Callao.	Hong Kong.	Manilla.	Calcutta.	Batavia.	Shanghai.	Japan.
\$20,600	\$33,500	\$43,000	\$3,500	\$2,000	\$2,200	\$10,000

The statements of coin shipped cannot be considered as thoroughly accurate, inasmuch as the clearances of American vessels for Callao have been very considerable, and but few have taken less than \$2,000 for ship's expenses.

The shipments of quicksilver during the six months ending July 1, 1854, amounted to 7,943 flasks. Of this amount 3,500 flasks were shipped to San Blas, 1,050 to Callao, 1,500 to Valparaiso, 400 to Mazatlan, and 1,493 to Hong Kong; total as above, 7,943. Same time in 1853, the shipments of quicksilver amounted to 9,297 flasks, showing a decrease in the six months of 1854 of 1350 flasks.

CONDITION OF THE NEW ORLEANS BANKS JUNE, 1854.

STATEMENT OF THE NEW ORLEANS BANKS, CONDENSED FROM THE OFFICIAL REPORT OF THE BOARD OF CURRENCY, ON THE LAST SATURDAY OF JUNE.

CASH LIABILITIES.

Banks.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Other cash liabilities.	Total cash liabilities.
Citizens'	\$1,952,940	\$1,664,473	\$33,221	\$3,650,633
Canal	1,459,092	944,616	173,461	2,577,169
Louisiana	1,243,144	2,574,320	187,517	4,004,981
Louisiana State	1,448,055	3,168,374	442,397	5,058,856
Mechanics' and Traders'	894,637	235,352	1,130,040
New Orleans	532,870	778,013	28,333	1,339,216
Southern	287,170	243,676	47,235	578,081
Union	327,345	558,523	885,868
	7,250,646	10,826,682	1,147,517	19,224,845

CASH ASSETS.

Banks.	Specie.	Loans payable in full at maturity.	Exchange, &c.	Other cash assets.	Total cash assets.
Citizens'	\$1,578,506	\$3,043,699	\$336,787	\$4,958,992
Canal	1,144,503	1,970,458	961,022	4,075,984
Louisiana	1,921,848	2,221,380	986,994	*1,200,000	6,330,222
Louisiana State	1,786,932	3,296,875	185,912	†874,000	6,143,749
Mechanics' & Traders'	601,649	1,087,223	145,308	‡152,000	1,986,180
New Orleans	263,640	1,235,721	158,336	†674,000	2,331,696
Southern	171,731	497,507	546,626	‡918,473	1,835,337
Union	224,535	797,440	120,472	‡500,000	1,642,417
	7,693,374	14,150,303	3,441,427	4,019,473	29,304,577

INVENTION TO PREVENT COUNTERFEITING BANK NOTES.

The Swedish papers bring accounts of a very important invention which has been laid before the Commissioners of Banking at Stockholm, by a certain Count P. A. Sparre. The invention is twofold; he counterfeits with incredible exactness the bank notes in use, but prints others which he himself cannot imitate. An editor who witnessed the process, remarks:—

When one sees Count Sparre with his simple machinery, which any one may manage with the greatest ease and facility, prepare in a few minutes the bank paper in use, which is made of three different laminae, and in this give, without the slightest difficulty, or even exertion of artistic skill, the finest water-marks in perfection, and then follows the preparation of the paper by a simple and merely momentary process, but which gives again the printing an engraving absolutely perfect—he feels a strange sensation at the thought of being participator in the secrets of the art which, in less conscientious hands, might ruin all our banks, and produce utter and inextricable confusion in our credit system.

Count Sparre, in his memorial, states that his process, if it does not render counterfeiting utterly impossible, at all events, increases its difficulty to almost that degree, and offers to furnish the bank with all its notes for the sum of 25,000 thalers (\$18,000) per annum, which is about one-half the present expense for paper. The Commissioners have referred the question to a committee of scientific men. In the mean time, Count Sparre is to visit England and other countries, to bring his inventions to the notice of the mercantile public.

* Stock of the bank purchased from the State.
† Bonds.
‡ Bonds in the hands of the State Auditor.

DUTIES RECEIVED AT THE SAN FRANCISCO CUSTOM-HOUSE.

The duties received at the Custom-house in the port of San Francisco for the six months ending June 30th, were as follows:—

January	\$159,038 70	April	\$117,268 15
February	130,480 65	May	116,172 99
March	131,395 60	June	100,695 85

Total duties received for the above six months \$756,056 35

For the corresponding six months of 1853, the duties amounted to..... 1,453,056 99

Showing a decline in 1854 of 697,000 64

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

REGULATIONS OF THE CORN EXCHANGE ASSOCIATION, PHILADELPHIA.

Regarding the extremely low and inadequate rates for which Commission Merchants have been and are now doing business, we deem it inexpedient to delay any longer a reform, which the advance in rents, high price of labor, and increase of expenses of every description so gravely demand; and being assured that a judicious amendment of the charges of the Commission Merchant, observing a perfect uniformity, can neither increase nor diminish the profits of the Miller, nor of the interior or country merchant, inasmuch as the value of all produce intended for transportation to eastern cities, or seaboard, is regulated by the cost of freight, package and charges attending its sale in market, the Association has adopted the following very moderate rules and charges for the uniform government of the trade, on and after the first day of August, 1854, which will be strictly observed.

COMMISSIONS FOR RECEIVING INTO STORE, OR TAKING CHARGE OF PRODUCE CONSIGNED TO OTHER HOUSES.

On Flour and Meal, 3 cents per barrel; hhds. Corn Meal, 12 cents each; Flour and Meal in packages, 2 cents per 100 pounds; wheat, rye, corn, oats and mill-feed, in packages, 1 cent per bushel; cloverseed 2 cents per bushel; timothy seed, flaxseed, other grass seeds, barley, peas and beans, 1 cent per bushel.

COMMISSIONS FOR RECEIVING AND SHIPPING HENCE TO OTHER PORTS.

On flour and meal, 6½ cents per barrel; hhds. corn meal, 25 cents each; half bbls. flour and meal, 3½ cents each; grain of all kinds, including peas and beans, 1 cent per bushel; seeds of all kinds, 3 cents per bushel.

COMMISSIONS FOR SELLING.

On flour and meal, 12½ cents per barrel; hhds. corn meal, 50 cents each; half bbls. flour and meal, 6½ cents each; flour, meal, and chopped grain, in bags, 8 cents per 100 pounds; wheat, rye, corn, oats, and barley, afloat, 1 cent per bushel, with ½ cent per bushel for measuring, and actual cost of labor when put into store; wheat, rye, corn, barley and oats, on the railroad, 2½ cents per bushel, including labor; seeds of all kinds, peas and beans, 2½ per cent; whisky 2½ per cent, and 10 cents per cask for inspection; also, 1 per cent guaranty, and ⅓ of 1 per cent per month fire insurance on gross amount of all sales. Cooperage on flour, 1 cent per barrel, and 1½ cents per barrel on corn meal. Inspection on flour, 1 cent per cask.

COMMISSIONS FOR PURCHASING.

On produce generally, one-half the charges made for selling, and 2½ per cent on all other goods.

STORAGE WHEN LIMITED.

On flour and meal 3 cents per barrel per month; half bbls. flour and meal 1½ cents each per month; hhds. meal, 12 cents each per month; seeds, 1 cent per bushel per month; chopped grain and mill feed in packages, 1 cent per 100 lbs. per month; grain of all kinds, in bulk, ½ cent per bushel per month, and pay full storage for any month upon which they may enter.

COMMISSIONS FOR LOADING MERCHANDISE IN CARS AND BOATS.

On store goods and merchandise generally, 75 cents per ton.

In all cases where acceptances are made on produce, in anticipation of sales, the commission merchant shall be at liberty to sell, in order to meet the drafts at maturity.

Delivery will be accomplished, on the part of the seller, when he places at the door of his warehouse, flour or meal, in a position to be removed by the purchaser's porters or stevedores; and grain, when pointed out to purchaser or his agent.

The expenses of towing and wharfage of boats and vessels shall be paid by the purchaser of the cargo, when moved for his accommodation.

BUFFALO BOARD OF TRADE ON THE MEASUREMENT OF GRAIN.

The following report and resolutions adopted by the Board of Trade at Buffalo, in relation to the method now prevalent in New York, of receiving and delivering grain by measure, embrace a subject of deep interest to dealers throughout the entire West, and we hope will receive that attention its importance demands:—

REPORT.

Whereas, it is the custom in this city, and also with dealers at all Western ports, to buy, sell, and ship all kinds of grain by weight; and whereas, it is the custom in the city of New York to sell and deliver grain by measuring in sealed half bushel measures; be it therefore

Resolved, That this Board of Trade strongly disapprove of the practice of measuring grain as now existing in the city of New York, and view it as detrimental to the interest of produce dealers generally, and particularly to those making shipments direct to that market, occasioning thereby unnecessary delays in unloading boats, and vexatious disputes and losses to shippers and owners of grain.

Resolved, That this Board view the antiquated custom of measuring grain as practiced in the city of New York as an incorrect and illegal method of ascertaining the number of bushels, and the practice ought to be abolished and a uniform system of selling and delivering by weight adopted.

Resolved, That this Board respectfully recommend to shippers here and elsewhere, that they instruct their consignees and agents in the city of New York to sell and deliver grain by weight, according to the statute law of the State regulating the number of pounds to the bushel; and furthermore, that shippers be requested to note the instructions in this regard on their bills of lading.

Resolved, That a copy of this preamble and resolutions be sent to the President of the Corn Exchange in New York, and also to the President of the Board of Trade at Albany and Oswego, requesting them to co-operate in establishing a uniform system of delivering all kinds of grain by weight.

A committee consisting of Rufus C. Palmer and Cyrus Clark, was appointed to correspond with the Board of New York city in relation to the subject of lighterage, and with instructions to report thereon at an early day.

REDUCTION OF SPANISH TONNAGE DUTIES.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, July 17.

By the following royal order of the Queen of Spain, recently transmitted hither from the United States legation in Madrid, it will be seen that a considerable reduction has been made in tonnage duties and port charges upon vessels of the United States in the Peninsula and adjacent islands:—

MADRID, JUNE 14, 1854.

The Queen has been pleased to direct that Anglo-American vessels be considered in the peninsula and adjacent islands like national ones, as regards the port and navigation duties, in reciprocity for what is practiced with Spanish vessels from the same places, in the ports of the United States as regards the same duties.

TO THE GENERAL DIRECTOR OF
CUSTOM-HOUSES AND TARIFFS.

DOMENECH.

VENEZUELA TARIFF ON FLAX, ETC.

IMPORT DUTIES ON FLAX, LINEN YARNS, AND LINEN MANUFACTURES.—FURNISHED TO THE BELFAST (IRELAND) LINEN-TRADE COMMITTEE BY THE BOARD OF TRADE.

	£	s.	d.
Linen yarn..... per 100 pounds,	0	1	6½
Linen thread	3	18	9½
Damasks, yard wide..... per 100 yards,	1	11	1½
Damasks, above a yard in width, in proportion.			
Linen, unbleached, not exceeding 1½ varas in width	0	17	3½
Linen, bleached, of the same width.....	1	14	6½
Ticking, not exceeding 1 vara in width.....	0	17	3½
Ticking, not exceeding 2 varas in width.....	2	1	5½
Sheetings, (Russian,) real or imitation, not exceeding 1 vara in width..	0	17	3½
Sheetings, (Russian,) above 1 vara and not exceeding 1½ varas in width,	1	0	8½
Drills, bleached, or unbleached, mixed or not, or not exceeding 1 vara,	2	1	5½
Drills, of like character, but of greater width, in proportion.			
Laces, six per cent <i>ad valorem</i> .			
Lawns, plain, from 8 to 9 varas in length, not over 1 vara in width....	1	14	6½
Lawns, of similar character, but of greater width, in proportion.			
Lawns, embroidered, not exceeding 1 vara in width.....	3	1	7½
Lawns, embroidered, of greater width, in proportion.			
Cambric, not exceeding 1 vara in width	4	6	4½
Cambric, of greater width, in proportion.			
Cambric, of light quality, embroidered, not exceeding 1 vara in width..	3	9	1½
Cambric, of like character, but of greater width, in proportion.			
Irish linen bleached, pure or mixed with cotton, not exceeding 1 vara.,	1	11	6½
Irish linen unbleached, of like width	1	4	2½
Linen checks, not exceeding three-fourths of a vara in width.....	1	12	1½
Linen checks of greater width, in proportion.			
Sailcloth and canvas, not exceeding one vara in width.....	1	0	8½
Tablecloths..... each	0	4	9½
Towels	0	0	4½
Linen or cambric handkerchiefs, embroidered or not per dozen	0	8	0

SANITARY REGULATIONS OF THE TWO SICILIES.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, Washington, July 15, 1854.

Information has been received at this department, from the legation of the United States at Naples, of a recent modification of the sanitary laws of the Two Sicilies. The decree announcing this change is dated on the 15th of May last, and sets forth that the time employed in the voyage shall be hereafter reckoned as a part of the allotted period of quarantine for vessels coming from places suspected of yellow fever or plague, or Asiatic cholera, provided they have furnished themselves with a certificate from the proper Sicilian consul or consular agent, that there are not in the vessel, goods or effects of any kind coming from infected places; and provided also that the voyage has been a fortunate one, and that there have not occurred during the same the incidents provided against in articles fifty-two and fifty-three of the former decree, on this subject, of May, 1853; which incidents are, the having communication during the voyage, either with vessels coming from suspected or infected ports, or with vessels of whose condition and place of departure they have no information, or with a vessel having on board goods or effects of susceptible character coming either directly or originally from infected or suspected places, and which goods and effects have not been opened or purified in the port whence the said vessel last cleared; or, finally, if the vessel herself have such goods or effects on board not having been thus opened or purified.

ON THE SALE OF RUSSIAN VESSELS.

The Baltimore *Sun* learns from the French Consul at Baltimore, that every ship or vessel built in Russia, or having a Russian owner, which shall be purchased by any subject or subjects of any one of the allied or neutral powers during the present hostilities in Europe and Asia, will, notwithstanding such purchase, continue to be regarded by the French government as still belonging to the enemy.

HAVANA PORT REGULATIONS.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, April 27, 1854.

The following notice has been received at this Department from W. H. Robertson, Esq., acting Consul of the United States at Havana:—

Notice is given to Commerce, by order of the Superintendency, that the 3d article of the royal order of the 24th of December of the year last past, published in the Official Gazette of 10th of February last, is to be understood as follows: That vessels which, besides the coal in less quantity than their measure, import other cargo to any amount, shall be in the same case respecting the tonnage dues, but subjected to the payment of the ponton, health visit, registering, and other usual dues.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

NATIONALITY OF FOREIGN VESSELS ENTERED AND CLEARED THE U. STATES.

Statement of the National character of the Foreign vessels entered and cleared from the United States, for foreign countries, during year ending June 30th, 1853, compiled from the Report of the Register of the Treasury:—

National character of vessels.	ENTERED.				CLEARED.	
	Number.	Tons.	CREWS.		Number.	Tons.
			Men.	Boys.		
Russian.....	10	3,677	149	8	2,993
Prussian.....	54	19,356	730	55	19,710
Swedish.....	138	41,539	1,710	2	144	44,959
Danish.....	70	14,595	691	66	14,517
Hanseatic.....	343	142,204	5,406	1	332	136,728
Dutch.....	58	17,511	735	65	20,529
Belgian.....	20	6,524	269	2	22	8,266
Mecklenburgh.....	12	3,439	133	13	3,927
Oldenburg.....	40	12,020	473	31	9,260
Hanoverian.....	21	4,638	200	20	4,145
British.....	10,359	1,871,210	105,406	1,515	10,323	1,889,818
French.....	105	28,813	1,379	1	95	25,907
Spanish.....	156	41,336	2,003	15	171	45,677
Portuguese.....	24	4,709	252	23	4,644
Sicilian.....	59	14,332	653	57	13,951
Sardinian.....	28	8,118	389	33	9,113
Tuscan.....	1	210	13	1	210
Austrian.....	10	4,420	194	12	5,896
Turkish.....	1	231	10	1	231
Italian.....	2	463	22	3	619
Haytien.....	1	162	8
Mexican.....	78	6,976	632	81	7,410
Central American....	2	339	15	1	163
New Grenadian.....	3	1,111	46
Venezuelan.....	7	1,051	60	6	906
Brazilian.....	5	1,243	55	5	1,243
Cisplatine.....	1	218	9
Chilian.....	68	18,686	907	64	17,908
Peruvian.....	17	3,346	125	21	5,163
Chinese.....	2	778	31
Ecuadorian.....	1	243	18	1	243
Lubeck.....	7	1,716	74	7	1,897
Hawaiian.....	16	2,306	154	17	2,363
Tabitian.....	2	214	22	..	1	89
Pontifical.....	1	196	10
Nondescript.....	1	305
Total.....	11,722	2,277,930	123,053	1,536	11,680	2,298,790

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, EXHIBITING THE VALUE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS FROM EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY, DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1853.

Countries.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.			Value of Imports.
	Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.	Total.	
Russia	\$2,313,175	\$143,478	\$2,456,653	\$1,278,501
Prussia	26,911	1,806	28,717	47,875
Sweden and Norway	833,533	18,735	852,268	447,332
Swedish West Indies	31,024	1,191	32,215	6,846
Denmark	82,903	82,903
Danish West India	913,481	41,160	954,641	184,497
Hanse Towns	7,409,315	610,733	8,020,053	13,843,455
Holland	1,983,723	215,773	2,199,496	1,625,170
Dutch East Indies	202,822	180,884	383,706	384,583
Dutch West Indies	251,258	18,789	270,047	409,185
Dutch Guiana	108,389	17,674	126,063	130,681
Belgium	2,301,038	907,495	3,208,533	2,732,168
England	112,778,359	3,209,264	115,987,623	125,774,202
Scotland	4,486,825	154,739	4,641,564	4,337,990
Ireland	613,812	59,272	673,084	153,118
Gibraltar	169,444	66,570	236,014	61,784
Malta	165,319	22,237	187,556	80,053
British East Indies	503,856	63,542	567,398	3,581,726
Cape of Good Hope	367,231	3,141	370,373	302,303
Mauritius	3,338	3,338
British Honduras	318,355	63,005	381,360	268,298
British Guiana	708,841	38,863	837,704	64,533
New Zealand	241
British West Indies	4,056,527	106,081	4,162,608	1,044,264
British American Colonies	3,398,575	1,912,968	5,311,543	2,272,602
Canada	4,005,512	3,823,587	7,829,099	5,278,116
Hanover	6,290	6,290	218
Australia	4,148,828	138,174	4,287,002
Falkland Islands
Other British Possessions	71,069	71,069
France on the Atlantic	24,268,292	1,380,647	25,648,939	30,851,549
France on the Mediterranean	852,513	70,331	922,845	2,604,393
French West Indies	362,513	35,738	398,251	52,340
Miquelon and French Fisheries	9,005	9,005
French Guiana	64,335	1,104	65,439	17,717
Bourbon
French Possessions in Africa
Spain on the Atlantic	631,494	15,551	647,045	635,646
Spain on the Mediterranean	3,923,656	34,297	3,957,953	1,458,879
Teneriffe and other Canaries	23,215	1,000	24,215	84,021
Manilla and Philippine Islands	64,375	1,000	65,365	2,465,083
Cuba	5,773,419	514,549	6,287,959	18,585,755
Porto Rico and other Spanish W. I.	810,411	54,143	864,544	2,800,936
Portugal	223,651	26,552	250,203	411,155
Madeira	101,524	15,574	117,098	77,598
Fayal and other Azores	21,307	4,440	25,747	10,892
Cape de Verd Islands	23,275	1,604	24,879	41,053
Italy generally	2,173,745	159,833	2,333,578	953,714
Sicily	130,337	24,818	155,155	863,351
Sardinia	195,380	27,926	223,306	117,583
Tuscany	15,173	22,640	37,813	856,617
Pontifical States
Ionian Islands
Trieste and other Austrian ports	2,062,484	171,804	2,234,288	528,567
Turkey, Levant, &c.	207,358	79,981	287,339	727,516
Greece	4,550

VALUE OF EXPORTS.

Countries.	Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.	Total.	Value of Imports.
Hayti.....	1,738,413	260,520	1,998,933	1,985,624
Mexico.....	2,529,770	1,029,054	3,558,824	2,167,985
Central America.....	225,856	120,474	346,330	590,937
New Grenada.....	753,391	103,079	856,470	533,528
Venezuela.....	749,859	94,668	844,527	2,613,780
Bolivia.....	41,572	41,572
Brazil.....	3,734,190	260,254	3,994,444	14,817,961
Oriental Republic of Uruguay....	296,088	12,358	308,446	302,980
Argentine Republic.....	618,855	262,611	881,466	2,186,641
Chili.....	2,157,320	169,117	2,526,437	2,214,252
Peru.....	657,416	40,261	697,577	173,441
Equador.....
China.....	3,212,574	524,418	3,736,992	10,573,710
Asia generally.....	6,868	6,868	32,721
Liberia.....
Patagonia.....
Africa generally.....	1,555,990	54,843	1,610,833	1,202,986
South America generally.....	153,451	27,060	180,511	19,390
South Seas.....	666,096	36,559	696,655	796
Pacific Ocean.....
Atlantic Ocean.....	24
Indian Ocean.....	11,816	11,816
Sandwich Islands.....	29,406	29,406	16,575
Northwest Coast.....
West Indies generally.....	98,125	98,125
Uncertain places.....
Total.....	\$213,417,697	\$17,558,460	\$230,976,157	\$267,978,647

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE TONNAGE OF AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS ARRIVING FROM AND DEPARTING TO EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1853:—

	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the U. States.
Russia.....	10,455	11,958	1,013	5,297
Prussia.....	374	293
Sweden and Norway.....	3,563	3,217	13,552	6,153
Swedish West Indies.....	1,184	1,136	53
Denmark.....	350	332	2,174
Danish West Indies.....	11,618	14,032	4,965	9,571
Hanse Towns.....	26,561	26,995	138,788	85,281
Holland.....	10,776	10,202	15,074	20,780
Dutch East Indies.....	2,864	3,526	1,252	6,605
Dutch West Indies.....	17,590	5,988	3,602	409
Dutch Guiana.....	5,110	6,218	1,129	402
Belgium.....	28,845	25,124	10,931	4,192
England.....	826,453	664,892	435,830	429,176
Scotland.....	25,892	27,734	76,899	32,612
Ireland.....	2,736	3,482	41,238	14,955
Gibraltar.....	5,242	966	1,330
Malta.....	830	2,721	936	741
British East Indies.....	38,270	50,461	3,908	6,309
Cape of Good Hope.....	2,041	4,705	901	983
Mauritius.....	325
British Honduras.....	4,418	5,111	1,794	3,320
British Guiana.....	4,211	14,426	1,550	3,181
New Zealand.....

	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the U. States.
British West Indies.....	77,587	101,808	49,245	45,424
British American Colonies.....	112,335	266,431	395,693	583,465
Canada.....	1,376,927	1,062,086	748,034	734,029
Hanover.....	630	96
Australia.....	442	56,944	5,000	13,034
Falkland Islands.....	150
Other British Possessions.....	589	723	1,184	797
France on the Atlantic.....	174,748	184,947	31,045	11,127
France on the Mediterranean.....	15,168	16,234	6,921	3,761
French West Indies.....	4,047	13,262	3,702	4,741
Miquelon and French Fisheries.....	391	205	1,215
French Guiana.....	530	1,275	323
Bourbon.....	639
French possessions in Africa.....	193	800
Spain on the Atlantic.....	14,469	10,768	2,924	6,229
Spain on the Mediterranean.....	14,562	7,600	14,489	38,130
Teneriffe and other Canaries.....	1,641	1,046	2,318	1,235
Manilla and Philippine Islands.....	16,697	20,598	4,541	2,003
Cuba.....	455,700	365,392	37,362	22,730
Porto Rico & other Spanish W. Ind.	47,838	30,815	15,844	9,429
Portugal.....	3,314	5,476	5,973	8,696
Madeira.....	1,942	3,707	369	348
Fayal and other Azores.....	1,691	1,777
Cape de Verd Islands.....	901	2,181	1,153
Italy generally.....
Sicily.....	25,545	5,397	19,036	2,777
Sardinia.....	400	11,821	4,356	7,018
Tuscany.....	16,596	2,192	1,226	224
Pontifical States.....	218
Ionian Islands.....	149	149
Trieste and other Austrian ports...	2,660	11,735	2,702	9,244
Turkey, Levant, &c.....	7,592	4,365	558
Greece.....	116
Hayti.....	32,262	31,369	10,402	6,124
Mexico.....	23,046	30,810	25,255	15,804
Central America.....	68,302	80,737	2,543	3,172
New Grenada.....	199,599	205,602	5,095	3,840
Venezuela.....	17,142	12,001	4,795	1,789
Bolivia.....	277	225
Brazil.....	73,160	69,735	24,447	5,158
Oriental Republic of Uruguay.....	2,319	8,790	1,341	1,356
Argentine Republic.....	11,537	10,749	4,741	4,639
Chili.....	13,641	23,488	38,511	38,655
Peru.....	14,965	63,246	17,558	37,410
Equador.....	503	226	249
China.....	65,899	66,041	26,965	24,808
Liberia.....	546	1,616
Patagonia.....	582	514	416
Africa generally.....	12,410	15,162	708	1,468
South America generally.....	434
South Seas.....	3,998	3,143	696	1,132
Pacific Ocean.....	28,077	31,614	5,819
Atlantic Ocean.....	3,762	7,788
Indian Ocean.....	3,203	4,820	686
Sandwich Islands.....	18,111	20,260	3,914	4,118
Northwest Coast.....	767	656	628	1,333
West Indies generally.....
Uncertain places.....	1,021	568
Total.....	4,004,018	3,766,789	2,277,930	2,298,790

THE MARITIME PROGRESS OF CHARLESTON.

The *Charleston Standard*, in order to ascertain as nearly as possible the exact condition of the maritime interests of the port of Charleston, (S.C.) procured the following list of vessels owned at the present time in that city, registering one hundred and fifty tons and over. The list could have been increased by taking the number under one hundred and fifty tons.

The *Standard* says:—"The mercantile marine is co-existent with internal prosperity. Our maritime commerce was at its height from 1820 to 1824; but in the latter year, from circumstances which may be directly traced to internal causes, it commenced falling off, and gradually dwindled away until it was reduced to a mere cypher. Within the last few years, however, we are happy to say, it has evinced signs of returning to the glorious path of enterprise. It has risen, and is now rising with a degree of strength and rapidity that bids fair to eclipse the expectations of its most sanguine friends. The main pillars upon which are based our future wealth and greatness, are our commercial marine and our railroads. They are to a considerable extent dependent upon each other. At this moment, the business success of our merchant vessels is of more importance than any other branch of trade—it is, in fact, the first stepping stone to prosperity. The bar in our harbor may be removed without a material increase in our shipping interest, but an increase in our shipping interest will not only remove the bar, but will apply the stimulant of individual exertion to the work, in which case it must succeed. We shall refer to these important matters again. In the mean time, we would refer with infinite satisfaction to the following

LIST OF VESSELS OF ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY TONS BURDEN AND UPWARDS, OWNED IN CHARLESTON, S. C.

SHIPS.		Acadia tons. 199.67	
Muscongus tons.	469.13	Delaware	198.19
Alliance	524.69	Julia Dean	298.40
Wateree	680.74	Convoy	249.40
South Carolina	1,301.02	Jedo	242.30
Delia Maria	583.87	BRIGS.	
Harkaway	545.05	Delta	198.31
Catherine	477.69	Orchilla	180.43
Gen. Parkhill	554.22	Factor	154.56
John Ravenel	700.14	Clarendon	182.70
George A. Hopley	249.45	Enterprise	196.62
Luminary	432.00	Louis Walsh	152.39
Tremont	368.14	Yankee Blade	220.84
Camilles	716.48	Emma Eger	184.73
Franchise	699.80	Saint Andrew	157.52
Susan G. Owens	730.11	KETCH.	
Caroline	722.18	Commerce	174.06
Noemie	547.39	SCHOONERS.	
Gondar	642.33	Broadfield	165.58
STEAMSHIPS.		St. Lawrence	153.25
Isabel	1,115.85	Fanny	263.23
James Adger	1,151.28	STEAMBOATS.	
Nashville	1,220.30	Charleston	235.30
BARKS.		Massasoit	178.35
St. Lawrence	223.40	Marion	258.71
Virginia Ann	295.39	Gen Clinch	256.16
Como	224.69	Wm. Seabrook	284.43
Dudley	249.68	Florida	344.85
Harmony	208.64	Nina	338.00
Sumter	380.70	DeKalb	154.52
Isabella	355.75	Wm. B. Meares	199.69
Susan	281.72	Carolina	447.32
General Greene	242.53	Darlington	298.08
Edisto	365.84	Jasper	247.31
Etiwan	325.71	Gov. Dudley	408.30
Cherokee	232.91		

Total tonnage, 25,785 53-95, exclusive of a large number of schooners and sloops, being an increase of 40 per cent in the last two years.

This highly gratifying result, says the *Standard*, has been produced almost entirely by the newly awakened spirit of enterprise that is rapidly diffusing itself throughout the city and state. Our people in all sections are fairly aroused; they are at work with a determination to place their State upon a footing, so far as internal prosperity is concerned, with the first of the nation. Nature has lavished upon them all the requisites for commercial, agricultural and manufacturing greatness; they have opened their eyes to this fact, and are alive to the importance of turning all these blessings to account. They see the necessity of opening better channels of communication to the seaboard, for the more speedy transmission of their products to market. They know that Charleston in reality is the most central point, and can be made more easy of access than any other place on the sea coast. Here, in time, must come for shipment abroad, a large portion of the products of the great west and southwest. This must eventually become the main depot for the imports and exports of many of the States in the interior, the very heart of the country—including North Carolina, the greater portion of Georgia, the southern part of Kentucky and Ohio, Tennessee, Arkansas, Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, and the States and Territories still further west. So soon as our railroad projects are completed a large amount of the commerce and travel of this vast range of country will be poured into the lap of Charleston. It is "manifest destiny."

TONNAGE OF NEW YORK AND BOSTON.

We give below a comparative view of the arrivals of foreign tonnage at New York and Boston for the last twenty years, that is, from June, 1830, to 1853, inclusive:—

TONNAGE AT NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS.					TONNAGE AT BOSTON FROM FOREIGN PORTS.				
Year.	No. of arrivals.	Tons American.	Tons foreign.	Total tons.	No. of arrivals.	Tons American.	Tons foreign.	Total tons.	
1830....	1,489	280,918	33,797	314,715	642	107,260	4,994	111,754	
1831....	1,634	274,227	62,772	337,009	766	114,616	11,199	125,815	
1832....	1,808	295,293	106,425	401,718	1,064	145,633	23,294	168,927	
1833....	1,926	320,083	110,835	430,918	1,067	147,904	29,440	177,344	
1834....	1,932	352,225	96,679	448,904	1,156	157,068	31,298	188,367	
1835....	2,044	373,465	90,999	464,464	1,302	161,484	39,142	200,626	
1836....	2,285	407,095	149,634	556,730	1,451	173,737	55,792	229,529	
1837....	2,071	368,011	171,360	539,373	1,591	180,159	52,883	233,042	
1838....	1,790	377,563	91,326	468,890	1,313	172,528	36,259	208,787	
1839....	2,159	422,340	142,985	565,325	1,552	181,750	45,667	227,417	
1840....	1,953	409,458	118,136	527,594	1,628	202,833	54,306	257,139	
1841....	2,118	423,952	125,073	549,025	1,790	216,223	70,583	286,806	
1842....	1,962	406,623	148,691	555,315	1,735	194,717	75,988	270,705	
1843....	1,832	385,124	166,370	491,495	1,706	169,859	77,354	247,213	
1844....	2,208	438,074	155,298	593,373	2,159	210,593	100,934	311,527	
1845....	2,144	472,491	140,858	613,350	2,305	206,964	109,060	316,024	
1846....	2,292	496,761	185,404	682,165	2,090	206,293	67,261	273,554	
1847....	3,147	605,482	333,537	939,019	2,719	252,386	131,823	384,209	
1848....	3,060	657,794	367,321	1,025,116	3,009	271,997	195,027	467,024	
1849....	3,227	734,008	414,096	1,148,104	3,111	249,563	210,556	460,119	
1850....	3,343	807,580	441,756	1,249,337	2,885	229,576	255,571	485,147	
1851....	3,840	1,144,485	479,566	1,624,051	2,872	239,854	264,624	504,488	
1852....	3,847	1,231,951	478,037	1,709,988	2,970	284,668	288,279	572,947	
1853....	4,079	1,321,674	491,580	1,813,255	3,042	309,341	303,581	612,922	

TRADE BETWEEN THE UNITED KINGDOM AND THE UNITED STATES.

The following table and remarks are from the *Belfast Mercantile Journal*:—

A Parliamentary return just printed gives the exports to the United States in 1847 and 1853; the quantities and declared value of British and Irish produce and manufactures exported from the United Kingdom to the United States of America in the following years, of which the following articles comprise the chief:—

1847.			1853.		
	Quantity.	Declared value.		Quantity.	Declared value.
Iron, wrought & unwrought. tons	137,983	£1,310,225		654,531	£5,379,753
Cotton manufactures yds.	105,500,000	2,305,103		193,500,000	3,607,608
Linen manufactures	36,000,000	1,069,410		65,000,000	2,057,119
Woolen manufactures	21,500,000	1,291,531		43,000,000	1,820,798
Woolen manufactures pcs.	412,361	889,856		869,144	1,755,499
Haberdashery, &c.		382,073			1,319,197
Alkali soda cwt.	167,212	88,133		550,735	262,495
Salt bush.	6,000,000	99,328		8,500,000	101,544
Machinery and mill work, including steam-engines		16,942			66,663
Total value of exports		£10,974,161			£23,658,427

It will be observed by the above table that the total value of our exports to the United States has increased nearly 116 per cent in six years. The following articles chiefly participate in this increase, and are placed in the order of their importance: Iron, wrought and unwrought, shows the enormous increase of 380 per cent; cotton manufactures, the number of yards of which has increased 84 per cent during the same period; linen manufactures, 80 per cent; woolen manufactures, 100 per cent; haberdashery, 264 per cent; machinery, 290 per cent.

It will surprise most people to find that the export of iron manufactures considerably exceeds in value that of any of our textile manufactures; and it is particularly gratifying to observe, that the total value of our exports to the United States amounts to one-fourth of that of our entire export trade, not including the value of unenumerated articles. This circumstance strongly demonstrates that the present war is not injurious to our principal channels of commercial intercourse.

IMPORT AND CONSUMPTION OF GRAIN IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

The total imports of grain, meal, and flour, stated in quarters, into the United Kingdom, the wheat being distinguished from "all sorts," although included:—

	All sorts.	Wheat.		All sorts.	Wheat.
1847.	11,912,864	4,464,757	1851.	9,618,026	5,330,412
1848.	7,528,472	3,082,230	1852.	7,746,669	4,164,603
1849.	10,669,661	4,802,475	1853.	10,173,135	6,235,860
1850.	9,019,590	4,830,263			

STATISTICS OF CONSUMPTION.

CONSUMPTION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM OF THE FOLLOWING ARTICLES PER HEAD, AT THE PERIODS UNDERMENTIONED:—

	1833.	1843.	1853.
Bread, stated in bushels wheat	8	8	10½
Sugar, in pounds	18	16	30
Tea, in ounces	19	22	34
Coffee, in ounces.	14	16	20½

IMPORTS OF INDIAN CORN INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

A recent Parliamentary document informs us of the quantities of Indian corn imported into the United Kingdom in each year since 1840, as follows:—

IMPORTS OF INDIAN CORN FROM 1840 TO 1853.

Year.	Qrs.	Year.	Qrs.
1840.	21,073	1847.	3,615,218
1841.	4,793	1848.	1,582,754
1842.	19,618	1849.	2,240,570
1843.	18,225	1850.	1,286,218
1844.	28,711	1851.	1,819,783
1845.	42,285	1852.	1,479,991
1846.	720,581	1853.	1,552,934

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

OF INSURANCE COMPANIES IN NEW JERSEY.

The following is a Supplement to the "Act to provide for the Incorporation of Insurance Companies," in New Jersey, approved 10th of March, 1852. The supplement act which follows was approved March 17, 1854:—

Whereas, by the act to which this is a supplement it is declared that no company organized for the purposes mentioned therein shall be organized with a smaller capital stock than fifty thousand, nor shall any company be formed for the purpose of doing the business of marine, or fire, or inland navigation insurance, on the plan of mutual insurance, commence business until agreements have been entered into for insurance, the premiums on which shall amount to \$20,000, and notes have been received in advance for the premiums on such risks, payable at the end of or within twelve months, from date thereof, which notes shall be considered a part of the capital stock, and shall be deemed valid and shall be negotiable and collectable for the purpose of paying any losses which may accrue or otherwise; and whereas, there is no provision in said act for the manner in which the residue of the said capital stock over and above the said notes of twenty thousand dollars, is to be paid in and secured; therefore

1. Be it enacted by the Senate and General Assembly of the State of New Jersey, That at the time of subscribing the capital stock of such company, as provided in the fourth section of the act to which this is a supplement, the whole of such subscription, to the full amount of thirty thousand dollars, shall be paid in cash, which, in addition to the said premium notes of twenty thousand dollars, shall form the capital, and it shall and may be lawful for the said company to invest the said cash capital in the stocks of the incorporated cities of this state, the stocks of this state, or of the United States, or the states of Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Kentucky, Virginia, or Pennsylvania, or in bonds and mortgages on unincumbered real estate within this state, worth, exclusive of buildings, double the amount invested therein; which said stocks or bonds and mortgages shall be deposited with the treasurer of this state, together with a true list of the names and residences of the persons whose notes are held by said company, with the dates and amounts thereof; and the president of said company shall present therewith to the treasurer his affidavit in writing that the mortgages, and each of them, were taken bona fide and in good faith for so much money loaned by said company, and that the premises thereby mortgaged are worth, exclusive of buildings thereon, double the amount of the mortgage thereon, and thereupon the said treasurer shall prescribe such regulations at the expense of said company for ascertaining the title and value of the said real estate, as he may deem proper, and when the said treasurer is satisfied with the title and value of said mortgaged premises and the sufficiency of the said securities, he shall certify his receipt of the said securities as the capital stock of said company to the secretary of state, and thereupon the attorney general and secretary of state shall then proceed as directed in the thirteenth section of the original act.

2. And be it enacted,—That when any company shall be formed under the provisions of said act, and the supplements thereto, the capital stock of which, by the terms of its charter shall exceed the sum of fifty thousand dollars, the trustees and corporators of such company and those entitled to a participation of the profits of the same, shall be relieved from the joint and general liability in the twenty-first section of the said act mentioned, when capital to the amount of fifty thousand dollars shall be paid in and invested as required by the provisions of said act or any supplement thereto.

Approved March 17, 1854.

SUIT ON AN OPEN POLICY OF INSURANCE.

The following important suit, brought by Greenwood and Morris against the Home Mutual Insurance Company, was recently (May, 1854) decided in the Fourth District Court, New Orleans:—

This was a suit instituted on the 24th of March, 1853, to recover \$17,433 80, with

interest thereon, from judicial demands of the Home Mutual Insurance Company, on the following grounds set forth in the petition of plaintiffs: That the said Company in November, 1852, issued in favor of the petitioners an open policy of insurance, whereby, in consideration of such sums of money as should thereafter be endorsed on said policy, the Company agreed to insure plaintiffs against loss or damage by fire to the amount of such sums of money as should thereafter be endorsed on said policy, such merchandise, &c., being stock in trade, hazardous, not hazardous, and extra hazardous, contained in such places as plaintiffs should thereafter report to said Company, and which said Company should endorse on said policy, and no risk should be binding on the Company until so endorsed and approved. In pursuance of said agreement, the plaintiffs had stored in the Alabama Cotton Press, covered by this open policy, 1078 bales of cotton. On the 2d of March, 1853, the Alabama Press was consumed by fire; 1040 bales of said cotton were totally lost. The plaintiffs averred that they had complied with all the requirements of the policy, paid the premium, &c. They then amicably requested of the Company the payment of \$57,134 13, the value of the cotton destroyed; but defendants declined to pay the same, except the sum of \$33,700 33, part thereof which plaintiffs received on account, and institute this suit to recover the balance.

This case was once before tried; but the jury failed to agree, and accordingly it was again tried on Friday last. The defendants, in their filed answer, merely denied all indebtedness. On the trial, it was shown that the plaintiffs had 1078 bales of cotton insured in the Home Mutual Office, covered by the open policy as alleged in the petition, and that the amount set forth in the petition, and for which payment was claimed, had been destroyed. The defendants admitted that the plaintiffs had 389 bales stored in the press, 296 in the street on the banquettes, and 355 in an adjacent lot, called the "Ice-House lot." It was to recover the insurance on this last 355 bales that suit was brought. The defendants held that the policy had nothing to do with cotton stored on the lots adjacent to the press. The plaintiffs brought forward evidence to show that the "Ice House lot" was considered and recognized as a portion of the Alabama Press, that it had long been the custom of that press to store cotton in that lot, and even in lots and squares much further from the building, whenever the press was full; and that such is the custom at all cotton presses. That the underwriters were well aware of this fact. That when factors take cotton to a press, they receive a receipt for the amount from the proprietor of the press, and upon this receipt being produced at the insurance office the cotton is insured; and the insurance company is then responsible for it until removed to another press, when they must be notified of the fact. The plaintiffs had been insured on the receipt of the proprietor of the press, and they were never notified that their cotton had been removed to any other press, therefore, they held that the Home Mutual Insurance Company was responsible for the full amount of the cotton destroyed, as well for that on the adjacent lot, as for that which was in the building and on the streets and banquettes.

The case was ably argued by Messrs. Hunt, Semmes and Edwards, counsel for the plaintiffs, and Messrs. Wolfe and Singleton for the defendants, and submitted to the jury, who, after a short absence, brought in a verdict for the plaintiffs, as prayed for in the petition.

FIRE INSURANCE FOR FIREMEN.

We find the following suggestions in the *Insurance Reporter*. In Boston, firemen are paid for their services; but the plan proposed seems to us a good one, and at least worthy of consideration:—

It cannot be denied that the firemen constantly peril their health, and often their lives in the service of the city. For this service they should receive a fair compensation. Most of the firemen are men in moderate circumstances, to whom seventy-five dollars a year would be no inconsiderable item. But many object to being paid for services which heretofore, (this is the only reason that can be given,) they have rendered free.

Now, to obviate in some measure this difficulty, and at the same time to compensate the firemen for services, we propose—

1st. A reorganization of the Fire Department, retaining all those of good character now in the department, appointing none others but men of like character; the whole being under the control of a Board of Directors.

2d. Let the city government, instead of paying the firemen \$75 each per year agree to pay that sum for them on a

LIFE POLICY INSURANCE. This sum to be paid annually, so long as they faithfully perform official duty. The fireman to forfeit his claim upon conviction of any misdemeanor which would render him liable to expulsion from the department.

This \$75 would secure four or five thousand dollars to the family or relatives of every fireman in the event of his death, which might occur either by accident, exposure, or in the ordinary course of nature.

This \$4,000 or \$5,000 Policy would become more and more valuable every year, so that the firemen would have constantly increasing motives for faithfulness and good behavior.

This would be much better than the plan of giving each fireman \$75 in cash per year, as it would insure some compensation to the family in case of his death.

Firemen are so constantly exposed to danger from falling walls and timbers, and a thousand other like casualties, that it seems proper that some provision of this kind should be made.

What a blessing it would have been to the families of all those firemen who perished at the Jennings' fire, could each have received five thousand dollars!

If it be objected that there is no precedent for the plan suggested, we answer that New York is the very city to establish a precedent. Is the plan suggested a good one? That is the question.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

NOTICES TO MARINERS.

The Notices to Mariners which we publish below have been received from the Department of State since the publication of the *Merchants' Magazine* for August, 1854.

HARBOR LIGHTS AT PORT SAN LUCAR, SOUTH WEST COAST OF SPAIN.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, June 12, 1854.

Official information has been received that the Spanish Government, on the 21st of January, established the following lights at the port of San Lucar-de-Barrameda.

1. A fixed light on Malandar Point, on the north shore of the port, at an elevation of 36 feet above the sea, and visible at the distance of six miles.

2. A fixed light in a high building at the northern end of the village of Bonanza, in the interior of the port on its eastern shore, at an elevation of 53 feet above the sea, and visible at the distance of eight miles.

3. A red light in an elevated position to the southward of the Castle of Espiritu Santo, the point of which forms the southern limit of the port.

In order to enter this port, the wind being free, a vessel having passed to the westward of the Salmedina shoal, should steer N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. for $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles, when she will be in about $5\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms water, sand, and will have the two lights above mentioned of Malander and Bonanza nearly in one, the bearings of these lights should be taken correctly, and the course altered for them to east. Having run $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles on this course, the red light on the southern shore will be seen bearing S. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. and when so far advanced as to bring it to bear S. S. W., the vessel will be in the narrowest part of the channel, (which is not two cables across,) and this red light will be eclipsed; on which taking place, an E. S. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. course is immediately to be steered, until Malander light bears N. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ N. and Bonanza light E. N. E., when she will be in 6 to 8 fathoms water, on sand. She may then steer N. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. for Bonanza road, and when that light bears S. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E. anchor in 4 to 6 fathoms water, on a sandy bottom.

The many rocks and shoals, both inside and outside of this port, render it difficult and dangerous to enter with a beating wind without a pilot; and no vessel should attempt it at night, but keep the sea until daylight, or anchor to the N. N. E. of Chipiona, if the weather should permit.

It is high water, full and change, at Chipiona, at 1h. 34m., and at Bonanza at 2h. 0m., and the greatest spring tide range is $12\frac{1}{2}$ feet.

The above bearings are magnetic.

FIXED LIGHT IN TRALEE BAY, SOUTHWEST COAST OF IRELAND.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, May 31, 1854.

Notice has been given by the Corporation for preserving and improving the port of Dublin, that on the 1st of July next a Fixed Light will be established on the western Samphire Island, which lies on the north side of the channel into Tralee harbor.

This Fixed Light will appear red when seen from seaward, or between the bearings of S. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. to E. S. E.; but when seen from the southward, or between the bearings of E. S. E. to W. N. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. it will be bright.

The light stands 56 feet above the level of high water, on a circular tower of bluish stone, and in clear weather may be seen 9 miles.

It bears from Mucklaghmore Rock.....	S. $\frac{1}{2}$ W.	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ sea miles.
It bears from the Rocky Shoal to the eastward of Mucklabeg Rock.....	S. by E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ do.
It bears from Mucklabeg Rock.....	S. S. E.	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ do.
It bears from the Black Rock, at the north side of the Inner Channel.....	N. W. by W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W.	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ do.
It bears from the south point of Great Samphire Island.....	N. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W.	$\frac{1}{2}$ sea mile.

Towards the harbor, the Light will be seen as far as the northern limits of the anchorage within Great Samphire Island, and if kept open to seaward, will lead clear of the Mucklaghmore Rock.

The above bearings are magnetic, and the variation is 29° 15' W.

FALSE BAY, BEACON BUOY ON THE WHITTLE ROCK, CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, May 29, 1854.

Mariners are hereby informed, that on the 31st of March last, a beacon buoy was placed at the distance of 40 fathoms E. by N. of the shoalest part (11 feet) of the Whittle Rock in False Bay.

This buoy is made of iron, painted red, carries a staff 13 feet long, with a basket, which is visible to the distance of two miles, and is moored in 10 fathoms water, with the following marks, viz. :—

The upper or black beacon, in Buffals Bay, a little open to the southward of the white beacon, bearing about W. $\frac{3}{4}$ S.; and

The white-washed mark, seen over Red Hill, a little open to the northward of the lower beacon, bearing about N. W. $\frac{3}{4}$ N.

There are several rocky heads, carrying from 4 to 6 fathoms within the circuit of 40 fathoms from the Whittle Rock.

LIGHTHOUSE AT CEDAR KEYS, FLORIDA.

A FIXED LIGHT WITH FLASHES.

This house is placed on the eastern end of the mound on the Sea horse Key, harbor on Cedar Keys, Florida. It is a plain structure of brick, one story in height, surmounted by a watch-room and lantern, both painted white. The illuminating apparatus is one of the Fresnal Fourth Order Fixed, with flashes every minute, and illuminating the entire horizon.

The focal plane is 75 feet above the sea level—the light, therefore, will be clearly visible from a position 15 feet above the water, in good weather, at the distance of 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ nautical or 16 $\frac{1}{2}$ statute miles. The principal object of this light (though seen in all directions) is as a guide to the main entrance of the harbor of Cedar Keys from the southward. A dangerous reef extends in a southwesterly direction from Sea-horse Key for twelve miles, but by keeping within the bearings of N. and N. N. W. (magnetic) the harbor can be safely entered to within one mile of the light. The approximate latitude and longitude, are—lat. 29° 5' 30" N. long. 82° 57' 30" W.

The light will be exhibited, for the first time, on the night of August 1, 1854, and will be continued to be shown every night thereafter from sunset to sunrise, until further notice.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

GEO. G. MEAD, Lieut. Topographical Engineers.

RULES TO PREVENT COLLISION OF SHIPS AT SEA.

The following remarks are extracted from the manuscript of Capt. Wm. Toms, who is engaged in the preparation of a work on the practice of navigation at sea. These rules are the result of more than twenty-five years' experience in practical navigation. Some time will elapse before the publication of Capt. Toms' work, and that gentleman is desirous that his brother seamen should enjoy the benefit of his experience. It affords us great pleasure to lay them before the marine readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*:—

Two ships approaching each other on opposite tacks, close hauled, and it is doubtful which will weather the other, the one on the starboard tack must keep her reach, while the other on the port tack must give way; but if, through ignorance or stupidity, the one on the port tack does not bear up, and a collision is unavoidable, then both vessels should put their helms a-lee, by which means they will be thrown in the stays, and should a collision take place, the shock will be very much lessened.

Two ships meeting each other right ahead, and steering opposite courses, both having the wind free, the rule is, for each to port their helms, by which means they will pass each other on the port side. But if one of them should be close hauled, then it is the duty of the other, which is going free, to pass to leeward of her.

But this rule should not be too hastily adopted in the night time, because if a vessel or her light is suddenly seen on the starboard bow, were each to port their helms, a collision would take place. This rule, therefore, is only applicable when vessels meet each other right ahead, or a little on the port bow. Steam vessels, which are always supposed to be under the command of their helms, are deemed to be vessels going free. The commanders of these vessels say that if sailing vessels would keep their proper course on the approach of a steamer towards them, the officer in charge of the deck would then see exactly the state of the case, and steer so as to clear the sailing vessel, and thereby prevent a collision; and that it frequently happens that those on board the sailing vessels become alarmed and keep changing their course without any fixed principle, thereby mutually deceiving each other as to their intentions.

Ships meeting each other on a dark, stormy night, or in foggy weather, the utmost presence of mind on the part of the officer of the watch is necessary to prevent collision. Many melancholy instances are of frequent occurrence, of collisions which take place under the above circumstances. On a vessel or her light being seen in this case, the first thing that should be done is to ascertain in which direction the other vessel is steering. This can be done even in the darkest night by simply taking the bearing of her light when first seen, and again in a few minutes afterwards. Then the difference of bearing will point out at once the direction in which she is steering. Then, but not before, (as is too often the case) the course may be changed to go clear of her. But if the light does not seem to change in the bearing, the vessel must either be coming directly before you, or your vessel is coming up with her. In the former case, when seen right ahead or a little on the port bow, the rule is to port the helm, but when very near on the starboard bow, to starboard the helm; and were each vessel to obey this general rule, a collision would be impossible.

Ships running in the night time should always, as a standing rule, pass astern of those they may meet ahead, close hauled.

The cause of most of the collisions which take place is by altering the ship's course previous to ascertaining the direction in which the other vessel is steering, and thereby causing the very thing they are desirous to avoid.

The proper way for each vessel to do after their respective lights have been seen by each other, is to continue their course, and to calmly but vigilantly watch the difference in the bearing of the lights, and which will at once show the direction in which the other is steering. Then the course may be changed if necessary, to prevent collision.

And in all cases when practicable—that is, when the movements of one vessel can be seen by the other—the intention of the one should be made manifest to the other, by a broad sheer in the direction in which she means to pass. This will save a great deal of anxiety of mind on the subject when the vessels are approaching each other.

IMPROVEMENT IN SHORTENING SAIL.

Capt. L. McKay, the well known Boston ship-builder, has taken up the subject of shortening a ship's sails, and it is anticipated will soon be able to make some important change in the whole management of the rigging of ships. He says that labor-saving appliances may be adopted, which will not merely lessen the pulling and hauling, but will accomplish more rapidly and with greater certainty the operation of making and shortening sail. He thinks he has discovered a process by which the three topmasts of a ship of 1,000 tons can be reefed by a crew of twenty men, in ten minutes, and the same reefs shaken out and the sails set again, in less time, without sending a man above the rail. He thinks a ship fitted with sails after this plan, can be cared for and sailed with one-third less seamen than under the present regime; yet so great a reduction in the crew would be undesirable, for various reasons, one of which is, that in heavy weather, the furling of a ship's courses frequently requires the presence of an entire crew, and even then is accomplished only by severe labor. But in any event, 25 per cent of the item of victualing and manning would be saved, and the ship sailed with less risk and more comfort to the crew under this deduction.

NAVIGATION OF LISBON.

It is impossible to conceive an easier navigation than that to Lisbon. When once across the Bay of Biscay and round Cape Finisterre you make direct for the Berlings, and other high rocks more to seaward, called the Estellas and Farilhoes de Velha. There is plenty of spare room for any vessel to pass inside the Berlings, thus saving some distance; and from Cape Corvoeire the coast tends inwards to the mouth of the Tagus, presenting a succession of scenery so novel and attractive as at once to satisfy the spectator that the poetry of Byron and the poetic prose of Beckford have failed to exaggerate its beauties.—*Hadfield's Brazil, River Plate, and Falkland Islands.*

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

RESULTS OF THE CENSUS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

NUMBER III.

FAMILIES AND HOUSES.

The term "family" may be defined in various ways. It consists of a head and of dependent members living together in the same dwelling. But the head of a family may be either a husband and wife, a widower, a widow, a bachelor, or a spinster; and the members may be children, relatives, visitors, and servants.

In the Act for taking the Census of 1851, the term "occupier" was substituted for the word "family," as being less open to misconstruction. "Occupiers," therefore, represent the "families" of previous censuses. By this substitution, bachelors and spinsters were not likely to escape enumeration as *families*, which was probably not unfrequently the case in former censuses.

It is so natural that a family should live in a separate house, that the term house is often used for family. This isolation of families in separate houses is carried to a greater extent in England than elsewhere. A German naturalist, Dr. Carus, physician to the King of Hanover, in a description of the English people in 1844, has the following remarks on English dwellings:—

"I cannot take leave of the subject without a remark on English dwelling-houses, which stand in close connection with that long-cherished principle of separation and retirement lying at the very foundation of the national character. It appears to me to be this principle which has given to the people that fixity of national character and strict adherence to the historical usages of their country by which they are so much distinguished; up to the present moment, the Englishman still perseveres in striving after a certain individuality and personal independence—a certain separation of himself from others, which constitutes the foundation of his freedom. It is this that gives the Englishman that proud feeling of personal independence which is stereotyped in the phrase 'Every man's house is his castle.'"

"The expression, however, receives a true value when, by the mere closing of the house-door, the family is able, to a certain extent, to cut itself off from all communication with the outward world, even in the midst of great cities. In English towns or villages, therefore, one always meets either with small detached houses, merely suited to one family, or apparently large buildings, extending to the length of half a street, sometimes adorned like palaces on the exterior, but separated by partition-walls internally, and thus divided into a great number of small high houses, for the most part three windows broad, within which, and on the various stories, the rooms are divided according to the wants or convenience of the family; in short, therefore, it may properly, be said that the English divide their edifices *perpendicularly* into houses, whilst we Germans divide them *horizontally* into floors. In England, every man is master of his hall, stairs, and chambers, whilst we are obliged to use the two first in common with others."*

The possession of an entire house is strongly desired by every Englishman. But on the continent the crowding of the middle and lower classes, who sleep in flats, is carried to a great excess, particularly in the capitals. The department of the Seine, for instance; in 1835, had, on an average, twenty-two persons to a house; whilst in densely populated London, in 1851, there were barely eight persons to a house.

In enumerating the houses, some definition of the term was required. "Flats" in Glasgow were returned as houses in every Census from 1801 to 1841; but in Edinburgh, the practice was to return the houses separated by party-walls, without any reference to the "flats" which they contained. In 1851, the question was carefully considered. The flat in Scotland is generally very different from the floor of an ordinary English house, and the holder enjoys all the advantages of the holder of a house, except the exclusive command of the entrance-hall and stairs. Nevertheless, the definition adopted was "isolated dwellings, or dwellings separated by party walls."

The subjoined table gives the number of houses in England, Scotland, Wales, and the Islands in the British Seas respectively, in 1851:—

TABLE III.—HOUSES IN GREAT BRITAIN IN 1851.

	Inhabited.	Uninhabited.	Building.	Total.
England	3,076,620	144,499	25,192	3,246,311
Scotland	370,308	12,146	2,420	384,874
Wales	201,419	8,995	1,379	211,793
Islands	21,845	1,095	203	23,143
Total	3,670,192	166,735	29,194	3,866,121

It would appear by the preceding table that about 4 per cent. of the houses in Great Britain were unoccupied in 1851, and that to every 131 houses, inhabited or uninhabited, there was one in course of erection in that year.

ARRIVAL OF IRISH EMIGRANTS IN LIVERPOOL IN FIVE YEARS.

A return has been laid before the British Parliament of the number of Irish poor who have arrived in Liverpool during the last five years, distinguishing as far as possible emigrants and jobbers from passengers apparently paupers. A monthly return is given, but we shall give only the totals for the years, including jobbers with emigrants:—

	Emigrants.	Paupers.	Total.
1849.....	160,459	80,468	240,925
1850.....	173,236	77,765	251,001
1851.....	215,369	68,134	283,503
1852.....	153,909	78,422	232,331
1853.....	162,290	71,353	233,652

From this it appears, that in the course of five years, no fewer than 1,241,412 Irish poor have come over to Liverpool, of whom 865,272 have apparently emigrated. We say apparently, for a note is added to the return stating that many who intend to emigrate, on coming to England find employment, and do not leave the country; while many others, whose object is at first to find employment, emigrate when they do not find it.

* The King of Saxony's Journey through England and Scotland in the year 1844. By Dr. C. G. Carus. Translated by S. A. Davidson, Esq.

POPULATION OF MASSACHUSETTS AND TENNESSEE.

Mr. JOHN FORSYTH, son of the late Secretary of State, and a well-known writer and editor, has lately delivered a lecture in Mobile, before the Franklin Society. The subject is the "North and the South," and the facts and suggestions which it contains are well worthy of the notice of all Southern men. The following paragraph from the lecture will perhaps give a fair idea of the relative advantage of the two sections:—

It must be admitted that the people of the North are in advance of those of the South in public spirit and enterprise, and in all those physical achievements to which associated labor and capital are essential. The South, on the other hand, claims equality, if not precedence, in the republic of morals and intellect, in freedom from crime, in freedom from pauperism, and from that most fearful of God's judgments on man, and the immediate fruit of pauperism and crime—*insanity*.

As an illustration, Mr. Forsyth gives the following table, taken from the last census returns:—

Population of Massachusetts is	993,399
Population of Tennessee	1,032,625
Tennessee excess of inhabitants.....	39,226

PAUPERISM.

Massachusetts has.....paupers	5,549
Tennessee.....	531
Excess in Massachusetts.....	3,018
Massachusetts, with 39,226 inhabitants less than Tennessee, has over eight times as many paupers.	

INSANE.

Massachusetts	1,647
Tennessee	478
Excess of Massachusetts	1,169

NATIVES OF OLD STATES RESIDING IN THE LAND STATES.

NATIVES OF THE OLD STATES RESIDING IN THE LAND STATES, AS PER CENSUS UNITED STATES FOR 1850, WITH THE NATIVES OF NEW YORK SPECIALLY THEREIN RESIDENT.

Where resident.	White residents.	Natives of New York.	Native-born.	Proportion of natives old States to native-born.
Alabama	151,915	1,443	420,032	Over $\frac{1}{4}$
Arkansas.....	26,787	537	160,345	About 1-6
California	34,408	10,160	69,610	About $\frac{1}{4}$
Florida	21,875	614	45,320	Nearly $\frac{1}{4}$
Illinois.....	199,780	67,180	736,931	About 2-7
Indiana.....	179,242	24,310	931,392	Nearly 1-5
Iowa	43,254	8,134	170,620	About $\frac{1}{4}$
Louisiana.....	30,527	5,510	205,921	About 1-7
Michigan.....	182,618	133,756	341,591	Over $\frac{1}{4}$
Mississippi.....	79,366	952	291,114	Over $\frac{1}{4}$
Missouri.....	84,398	5,040	520,826	Over 1-6
Ohio	508,672	83,979	1,757,556	Nearly $\frac{1}{4}$
Wisconsin.....	109,932	68,595	197,912	Over $\frac{1}{4}$
	1,653,174	410,210	5,849,170	More than $\frac{1}{4}$ and less than $\frac{1}{2}$

POPULATION AND GEOGRAPHICAL EXTENT OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

The *Journal de la Statistique Universelle* publishes the following table of the successive encroachments of Russia from the 14th century up to the year 1832. It is drawn up from communications by MM. Schmitzler, Maltebrun, General Bem, and other statisticians:—

GRAND DUCHY OF MOSCOW.

	Extent in geographical miles.	Population.
1328, at the accession of Yvan (Kaleta)	4,656	6,290,000
1462, at the accession of Yvan I.	18,474
1503, at the death of Yvan I.	37,137
1584, at the death of Yvan II.	125,465
1645, at the death of Michel I.	254,361
1689, at the accession of Peter I.	263,900	16,000,000

EMPIRE OF RUSSIA.

1725, at the accession of Catherine I.	273,815	20,000,000
1762, at the accession of Catherine II.	319,538	25,000,000
1796, at the death of Catherine II.	334,850	33,000,000
1825, at the death of Alexander I.	367,494	56,000,000
1831, at the taking of Warsaw.	369,764	60,000,000

That is to say that during the last two centuries, Russia has doubled her territory and during the last 100 years has tripled her population; her conquests during 60 years, are equal to all she possessed in Europe before that period; her conquests from Sweden are greater than what remains of that kingdom; she has taken from the Tartars an extent equal to that of Turkey in Europe, with Greece, Italy and Spain; her conquests from Turkey in Europe are more in extent than the kingdom of Prussia without the Rhenish provinces; she has taken from Turkey in Asia an extent of territory equal to all the small states of Germany; from Persia equal to the whole of England (U. Kingdom); from Poland equal to the whole Austrian Empire. A division of the population gives

For the tribes of the Caucasus.	2,000,000
For the Cossacks, the Georgians, and the Khirgniz.	4,000,000
For the Turks, the Mongols, and the Tartars.	5,000,000
For the Ouralians, the Finlanders, and the Swedes.	6,000,000
For the Muscovites (of the Greek Church).	20,000,000
For the Poles, (Roman and Greek Church United).	23,000,000
Total.	60,000,000

The population of ancient Poland counts for two-fifths of the total population over an eighth part of the territory, and the Muscovite population for one-third of the total number over the tenth of the territory; in other words, even at the present time the Polish element is in a great majority as compared to all the others.

ARRIVAL AND DEPARTURE OF PASSENGERS AT SAN FRANCISCO.

The San Francisco *Price Current and Shipping List* publishes a statement of the number of arrivals and departures by sea for the six months ending June, 1854, from which it appears that the number of males, females, and children departing, was as follows:—

Males.	10,980	Children.	240
Females.	567		
Total.			11,787

The number of passengers arriving during the same period was as follows:—

Males.	23,771	Children.	928
Females.	4,502		
Total.			29,201

Showing an excess of arrivals of the departures of seventeen thousand four hundred and fourteen.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &

THE GROWTH OF COTTON IN INDIA.

FROM REPORTS ADDRESSED TO THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF MANCHESTER, LIVERPOOL, BLACKBURN, AND GLASGOW, BY THE LATE ALEXANDER MACKAY, ESQ.

I am prepared for being met with the assertion that Indian cotton can be laid down in Liverpool at a cheaper rate than 4d. per pound. How far that may be the case with cotton produced in other parts of the country, I am not prepared to say; nor do I doubt that cotton from Guzerat has been frequently imported at a lower rate than that specified. But that entirely depends upon cotton being parted with on the Bombay Green at a sacrifice. If cotton is bought there at 75 rupees per candy, it may be laid down in Liverpool at 3d. per pound; but were such to continue its price for two or three consecutive years, cotton would soon disappear from the Bombay Green as an article of export. Guzerat cotton cannot at present be laid down in Liverpool at 3d. a pound, without entailing heavy losses upon some or all of those engaged in the trade antecedent to the shipper in Bombay. In such case, the losses which might at first be distributed, would soon be made to accumulate upon the cultivator, who would speedily sink under them, unless government came forward and shared them by granting him remissions. The losses of one year, when cotton sells at 75 rupees per candy, may be made up the next, when its price may be from 100 to 120 rupees. But unless, taking one year with another (in view of the outlays to which the cultivator is at present subjected,) its average price rose to upwards of 90 rupees, the production of cotton in Guzerat would speedily be annihilated.

In the eight years from 1834 to 1841 both inclusive, it only once dipped below 90, viz.:—in February and March, 1840, having been up as high as 135 in August, 1836, and at 210 in September, 1835. In 1842 it dropped to 90 in May, but throughout July and August ranged as high as 105. Throughout the whole of 1846 its average price was about 80. In 1847 it was 97. Next year was a year of depression, the price throughout March and part of April having been about 90, from which it rapidly fell in May to 80, and reached 65 by the close of the year. In 1849 it rose to 105. In 1850, for three months, it ranged about 145, and in 1841 it fell again to about 105. It will thus be seen that for the last eighteen years prices have, on the whole, been maintained at above 90; but with the terrible depressions of 1846 and 1848 still fresh in their remembrance, the shippers here are not without apprehension that the remunerating price, in view of the present cost of production, cannot, on the average of years, be maintained; and that consequently the cultivation of cotton, and with it the cotton trade, must decline. To meet so probable an emergency one obvious resource is, to lower the remunerating point at which cotton can be purchased here for export, by reducing the cost of production. Another is to enhance the price of India cotton in the Liverpool market by improving its quality. Unless something of the kind be done, Indian cotton must continue to struggle with its rival under great disadvantages. American cotton is produced and forwarded to market under every advantage which it can ever enjoy. India cotton must be put upon the same footing; it also must be cultivated under every possible advantage, ere it can be expected to engage in successful competition.

The struggle will be a more equal one when both articles are thus produced under every possible advantage; and there is all the more reason to get aid of every artificial drawback in its way, seeing that even then, in distance from market, Indian cotton must still continue to labor under an insurmountable natural disadvantage. But the two can never approximate an equality of advantages so long as, in a variety of ways, the cost of producing one of them is subjected to an artificial enhancement, from which the other is exempt. Let us see, then, at what cost under a more liberal fiscal system, cotton might be produced in Guzerat, so as successfully to compete with American cotton at all times and at all prices. There are some, as already noticed, who think that before agriculture in Guzerat can attain its proper footing, the assessment must be lowered to twelve annas, or three-quarters of a rupee per beega. But let us suppose that it is reduced to a rupee—no very extravagant supposition, seeing that a rupee is twenty per cent of the value of the cotton produce, and about twenty-five per cent of the general produce (cotton and grain,) of the beega—and also that such

a reduction would only be an extension of the principle on which government professes to act in revising the assessment of the deccan. I have already shown the other outlays of the cultivator to amount to one rupee, ten anas per beega, but under a more improved system of husbandry these outlays might be reduced to one rupee four anas, or a rupee and a quarter per beega. That this is not too great a reduction to anticipate, will be seen from the fact that Mr. Landon, of Broach, has cultivated a beega at the cost of one rupee.

With the landed system of the province on a proper footing—that is to say with the beegotee system prevailing—a host of middlemen, in the shape of bhagdars, &c., would be got rid of, whose exactions now add materially to the cost of cultivation. Were the means of communication improved and the country properly opened up, the European would soon take the place of the Wakharia, and the native agent be entirely dispensed with. With proper presses, too, established in the country, and Europeans to deal with, in whom confidence could be placed as regards the quality and condition of the cotton, the cost of repressing in Bombay might be entirely got rid of. With the cultivation of cotton and the trade in it once on this footing, its cost price to the cultivator and exporter respectively would be as follows:—

TO THE CULTIVATOR.

	R.	s.	p.
Assessment on 16 beegas at 1 rupee per beega	16	0	0
Other outlays at 1 rupee four anas per beega	20	0	0
Interest on money borrowed, say	3	0	0
Total cost to the cultivator.....	39	0	0

or close upon 1½d. per pound. Allowing him a profit of 20 per cent upon all his outlays, which is more than in the former case, this would bring the remunerating price to the cultivator up to 1½ per lb. or 48½ rupees, say 50 rupees, per candy—in other words, 20 rupees per bhar of kuppas. Supposing the Wakharia supplanted by the European, and allowing him 9 per cent, the same rate of profit as the Wakharia, his profit would be 4½, or say 5 rupees, upon a candy. The native agent would be dispensed with; while there would be a fall in the item of insurance, on account of the fall in value of the article insured; together with a fall in the freight from Guzerat to Bombay, owing to the smaller size of the bales from superior pressing. The fall in the two items of freight and insurance would go far towards counterbalancing any small addition which might be made to the freight to Liverpool from the partial swelling of the bales on their way to Bombay. Taking all these charges, however, the same as before, we should have the cost price at Bombay made up as follows:—

	R.	s.	p.
Price of the kuppas.....	50	0	0
European dealer's profits	5	0	0
Transport to port of shipment, say	0	10	0
Freight to Bombay	3	0	0
Insurance.....	1	0	0
Minor charges at Bombay.....	0	6	0
Total cost at port of shipment, per candy.....	60	0	0

or about 1½d. per pound, say 2d. per pound. If to this be added ½d. per pound, as before, ½d. for freight to Liverpool, and ½d. for insurance and charges in Liverpool, we have 2½d. as the cost price of Guzerat cotton in Liverpool, instead of 4d. as before. Comparing this with the cost price of American cotton at Liverpool, we have a difference of thirty-five per cent in the relative prices of the two articles, that of the India cotton being a reduction to that extent on the price of American. Between their relative values, as before stated, there is generally a difference of twenty-five per cent, on account of their difference as regards quality. Here, then, we have a gain on the score of price of ten per cent on the difference on the score of quality. Under such circumstances the quality of Indian cotton would be much improved, and that, combined with moderate prices, would lead to an unprecedented increase of consumption in England, and with so great a difference in price, compensating for the difference in quality. American "bowed" and "uplands" might, for most purposes of the manufacturer, find in Indian cotton a very formidable competitor, even in the market of Lowell itself.

BRIEF MENTION OF SHEEP AND WOOL GROWING.

The breeds of sheep most esteemed in Massachusetts, according to Mr. Flint, the Secretary of the Board of Agriculture in that State, are those which have more or less of merino blood in them. The merinos of Spain, so celebrated for their beauty and the fineness of their wool, have been known and valued for ages. Bucks of this breed were sometimes purchased in Spain at the rate of a talent (\$1,200) a piece, by the ancient Greeks, nearly twenty-five centuries ago. They were first imported into the United States in 1802, three or four having been obtained by Chancellor Livingston, then Minister to France. These had belonged to the celebrated Rambouillet flock, which Louis XVI. had obtained as a favor of Charles IV. in 1786. A short time before, Gen. Humphreys, Minister to Spain from 1797 to 1801, had purchased two hundred merinos, had them sent through Portugal, and shipped to this country. At that time but little interest was felt in the improvement of our stock, and these animals attracted no notice for some years. In 1808, however, the embargo led many to turn their attention to wool-growing, and fine wool soon rose to the high price of \$1 50 and \$2 a pound. In 1809-10 no less than 3,650 merinos were imported, and these were distributed throughout the United States. The importance of these early importations can hardly be over-estimated. They furnished our woollen manufactories with the raw material at times when it would have been expensive and almost impossible to obtain it abroad.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS OF CALIFORNIA.

The progress exhibited in the cities and towns of California, whilst the most wonderful, is certainly not the only evidence of development to be found in the State calculated to excite astonishment. The progress made in the departments of agriculture and domestic manufactures, is far beyond the knowledge or belief of those in the Eastern States, and many here, who spend all their time in the city, are far from realizing it fully.

But a year or two ago all the provisions consumed by the entire population were imported from abroad. Our people were dependent upon foreign fields for their bread; upon distant pastures for their meat; and the dairies and farms of the Eastern States supplied them with all the cheese, butter, eggs, etc., that they ate. As for the luxuries of vegetables, they were forced to content themselves without them, or use the miserable substitutes sent round the Horn in tins.

Now, we need not say that every thing is different. Our own granaries groan beneath the rich harvests of our native wheat fields; home-raised beef and pork, of the best possible quality, are found upon every man's table; fresh butter, of the most fragrant and delectable description, is now daily brought to market from our own dairies; fresh cheese from our own presses, can be obtained in any quantity, and as for vegetables, no country in the world can compare with ours.—*S. F. Daily News.*

PRODUCT OF EGGS IN IRELAND.

Eggs of hens, ducks, and other poultry, are produced in Ireland to an extent almost incredible. The supplies sent to Liverpool, and thence into the manufacturing districts, are enormous, frequently 1,000,000 in one day. They are packed between layers of straw, in strongly made boxes, hampers, and crates, containing 1,000 to 8,000 eggs, each package varying in weight from two to ten cwt. The aggregate quantity imported into Liverpool from Ireland last year, amounted to 33,350 packages, containing 148,134,000 eggs, weighing 9,260 tons, value £300,000. Besides small supplies from the neighboring districts, the Isle of Man, and Scotland.

Account of eggs imported into Liverpool from Ireland in the year 1852:—

	Packages.	No. of eggs.	Tons.
Dublin	20,995	69,280,000	4,330
Drogheda	4,019	15,536,000	972
Dundalk	1,896	14,774,000	924
Other places	6,440	48,544,000	3,034
Total	33,350	148,134,000	9,260

CANADIAN WHEAT CROP FOR 1854.

The wheat crop of Upper Canada will far exceed that of any other year in its amount. It is estimated that a third more was sown last year than the year before, and it all looks flourishing. The surplus last year is estimated at 7,000,000 bushels. This year it is calculated the surplus will reach 12,000,000 bushels. Estimating the price at only \$1 50 per bushel, it gives the farmers \$18,000,000 for wheat alone, for a foreign market.

DISCOVERY OF COFFEE.

About the year 1285 a dervish, named Hadji Omer, was driven out of the community of Moccia. Hunger induced him to roast the *Kahva* berries which grew near his hiding place. He roasted and ate them as the only means of sustaining life. Steeping them in water, which quenched his thirst, he discovered very agreeable qualities, and also that the infusion was nearly equal to solid food. His persecutors, who had intended him to die of starvation, regarded his preservation as a miracle. He was transmuted into a saint. Such are the facts relating to the discovery of coffee. There are now supposed to be 3,000 coffee-rooms in Constantinople.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

THE CANALS AND OTHER PUBLIC WORKS OF NEW YORK.

NUMBER III.*

THE EXTENSION OF THE CHANNELS OF TRADE AND TRAVEL BEYOND THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

Immediately west of the State of New York lies the great basin of the lakes, and contiguous to it on the south and west, lie the Ohio and Upper Mississippi basins, of equal magnitude. These basins are enclosed from the Atlantic by the Alleghany mountains, except where they fall off to the level plains extending through the centre of New York.

An inspection of the map, embracing these basins, shows on the one side the chain of great lakes from the further extremity of Superior, tending *southeasterly* to the lower end of Lake Erie; and on the other side the Ohio river, from its junction with the Mississippi, tending *northeasterly* to its source in western New York, and all of the intermediate natural water lines tending towards the same point.

This general direction of the natural water lines of these basins, has given the same course to the artificial water and railroad lines constructed through them, and concentrates in the narrow gorge lying between the northern slope of the Alleghany mountains and the eastern end of Lake Erie, a drift of trade and travel which is not to be found elsewhere on this continent.

This concentrated traffic, collected by these fan spreading lines, must be conveyed between the lakes and the Atlantic through the Erie canal and the central and southern lines of railroads of this State to its commercial emporium, from whence it can be distributed by the ocean lines of steamers and sail vessels to every port on the globe.

From the western terminus of the Erie canal and the Central and Southern railroads, extends the chain of western lakes, commencing with Lake Erie, which extends southwesterly between the peninsula of Canada on the north, and the States of New York, Pennsylvania and Ohio on the south, to Michigan, a distance of two hundred and seventy miles. Thence north through the Detroit river, lake and river St. Clair to Lake Huron, between Canada and Michigan, a distance of forty-five miles. Lake Huron extends in the same direction for a distance of two hundred and seventy miles, and connects with Lake Michigan, which runs south for three hundred and forty miles between the States of Michigan and Wisconsin, to Illinois and Indiana.

From Lake Huron, the river St. Mary, extending northwest for forty-six miles, con-

* For the first number of this series of papers, exhibiting a comprehensive history of "The Progress of Internal Improvements in the State," see *Merchants' Magazine* for July, 1854, pages 123-126—and for Number II, see *Merchants' Magazine* for August, 1854, vol. xxxi., pages 247-249.

nects with Lake Superior, which extends westward for four hundred and twenty miles, with Michigan and Wisconsin on the south, Canada on the north, and Minnesota on the west.

There are no rivers emptying into any of these lakes, which are navigable for any considerable distance.

From the southwestern part of New York, the Allegany river, running south through Pennsylvania, and uniting with the Monongahela near the western line of that State, forms the Ohio river, which extends thence nearly south between Pennsylvania and Virginia on the one side, and Ohio on the other. The Ohio extends thence nearly west between Kentucky and Ohio, and thence southwest between Indiana and Illinois on the north, and Kentucky on the south, to its confluence with the Mississippi, having an extent of navigation of nearly one thousand miles.

The Allegany and Monongahela rivers enter the Ohio in Pennsylvania, the Kanawha from Virginia, the Muskingum, Hocking, Sciota and Miami from Ohio; the Licking, Kentucky, Cumberland and Tennessee from Kentucky, and the White and Wabash from Indiana.

The navigation of the Upper Mississippi commences at St. Paul's, in Minnesota, where the St. Croix and St. Peters enter it, and thence runs south to its confluence with the Ohio for one thousand miles, between Wisconsin and Illinois on the east, and Minnesota, Iowa and Missouri on the west.

The Chippewa, Black and Wisconsin rivers enter the Mississippi from Wisconsin, the Rock and Illinois rivers from Illinois, the Iowa and Des Moines from Iowa, and the Missouri river from Missouri.

The annexed table shows the length of the steamboat navigation on the Ohio and Mississippi above their confluence, and of the tributaries before mentioned. Those of the Ohio, with its tributaries, make an aggregate length of more than three thousand miles, and those of the Mississippi of more than four thousand miles.

The lakes and the Ohio and Mississippi rivers are connected by four great lines of canals. The first extends from Erie, on Lake Erie, south to Beaver, on the Ohio river, a distance of one hundred and thirty-six miles.

The second line extends from Cleveland, on Lake Erie, southwest to Portsmouth on the Ohio, a distance of three hundred and twenty-four miles, with two branches connecting with the first line above mentioned, another branch connecting with the Ohio through the Muskingum river, and another through the Hocking.

The third line extends from Toledo, on Lake Erie, to Cincinnati, and also to Evansville on the Ohio. The distance from Toledo to Cincinnati is two hundred and fifty-one miles, and to Evansville is four hundred and sixty-seven miles.

The fourth line extends from Chicago, on the southern extremity of Lake Michigan, to the head of navigation on the Illinois river, a distance of one hundred miles.

Another canal is in progress, connecting the northern extremity of Lake Michigan with the Mississippi, through the Fox and Wisconsin rivers.

The New York Central and the New York and Erie railroad, through its branches, extend to the falls of Niagara, and there connect with a road across the peninsula of Canada to Detroit, and thence across Michigan to Chicago, and also by a line in progress to Grand Haven on Lake Michigan, opposite Milwaukee in Wisconsin.

From the western terminus of the Central and New York and Erie railroads, a line of road extends along the south shore of Lake Erie, through Cleveland and Sandusky to Toledo, and thence across Michigan and Indiana to Chicago.

From both Cleveland and Sandusky roads extend to Cincinnati on the Ohio.

From Cleveland a line of roads is in operation through Indianapolis to Terre-Haute, on the western line of Indiana.

From Toledo, Terre Haute and Cincinnati, lines of roads are in rapid progress to St. Louis, Alton and Quincy, on the Mississippi, and from Quincy and St. Louis other lines are in progress to the Missouri.

From Chicago, roads are completed to Rock Island and Alton, on the Mississippi, and in progress to Milwaukee and Madison, in Wisconsin, and Galena, Fulton, Quincy and Cairo, on the Mississippi.

From Fulton and Rock Island, roads are in progress, west of the Mississippi to Iowa city.

From Milwaukee a road is completed to Janesville, and in progress to the Mississippi.

The following table furnishes a list of all the roads in operation in this territory, and includes a number of roads, not embraced in the general lines above mentioned:—

LENGTH OF STEAMBOAT NAVIGATION ON THE WESTERN RIVERS, AFTER SLIGHT IMPROVEMENTS ARE MADE.

	Miles.	Miles.		Miles.	Miles.
Mississippi, (above Cairo)....	...	976	Ohio.....	...	959
Illinois.....	245		Tennessee, imperfect.....	720	
Des Moines.....	250		Cumberland, do.	400	
Iowa, imperfect.....	110		Wabash, do.	400	
Rock do.	250		Greene, do.	150	
Wisconsin.....	180		Kentucky.....	62	
	—	1,035	Sciota	50	
		2,011	Big Sandy.....	50	
Missouri, imperfect	1,500		Kanawha	65	
Osage, do.	275		Muskingum.....	70	
Kansas, do.	150		Monongahela	60	
Yellowstone, imperfect.....	300		Alleghany, imperfect.....	200	
	—	725		—	2,227
Whole length of steamboat navigation of the Mississippi.....	4,236		Whole length of steamboat navigation of the Ohio and branches..	3,186	

WESTERN CANALS AND RIVER IMPROVEMENTS.

	Miles.		Miles.
Beaver and Erie canal, from the Ohio river, at Beaver, to Lake Erie, at Erie.....	136	Cincinnati, to Wabash canal, and thence to Lake Erie, at Toledo..	251
Ohio canal, from the Ohio river at Portsmouth to Cleveland, on Lake Erie.....	324	Wabash and Erie canal, from the Ohio river at Evansville to Lake Erie at Toledo, 467 miles, 70 of which were included in the length of the Miami canal, leaving	397
Mahoning canal, and Pennsylvania and Ohio canal, connecting Ohio canal with the Beaver and Erie	85	Whitewater canal, from the Ohio river at Lawrenceville to the National road	68
Sandy and Beaver canal, connecting Ohio canal and river.....	76	Illinois and Michigan canal, from Lake Michigan at Chicago to the Illinois river at Peru.....	100
Muskingum improvement, connecting Ohio canal and river.....	91	Louisville canal, around the falls of the Ohio river.....	2
Hocking canal, connecting Ohio canal and river	56	Total.....	1,612
Walhending canal, a branch of the Ohio canal.....	25		
Miami canal, from the Ohio river at			

RAILROAD LINES COMPLETED WEST OF NEW YORK.

	Miles.		Miles.
Niagara Falls to Detroit.....	229	Sandusky to Newark.....	116
Detroit to Pontiac.....	25	Cincinnati to Parkersburgh (open'd)	60
Detroit to Chicago.....	278	" Marietta	77
New York State line to Cleveland	114	" Zanesville and Wheel-	
Cleveland to Pittsburgh.....	101	ing (opened).	59
" Cincinnati	255	" Chicago (opened). ...	92
" Indianapolis.....	281	" Dayton and Indiana	
" Toledo, two lines....	172	line, and thence to	
Toledo to Chicago.....	247	Indianapolis	157
Chicago to Fond du Lac, opened..	25	Cincinnati to Lex'g't'n and Louisville	190
" Galena, on the Missis-		Indianapolis to Peru.....	73
sippi (nearly complete)	210	" Lafayette.....	64
" LaSalle, via Aurora...	100	" Terre Haute.....	73
" Rock Island, on Miss...	180	" " Richmond	
" Springfield and Naples,		and New Albany.	209
opened for.....	81	" Madison.....	86
" Alton and St. Louis,		" Jeffersonville, &c...	140
opened for.....	257	" Lawrenceville....	90
" Cairo, opened for.....	116		
Sandusky to Springfield.....	134	Total.....	4,291

WESTERN LAKES.

The whole length of the lake coast is 5,000 miles, of which 3,000 is in the United States.

States.	Area sq. miles.	Miles wide.	Miles long.		Area sq. miles.	Miles wide.	Miles long.
Ontario.....	6,300	40	180	Mackinaw straits.
Erie.....	9,600	80	270	Michigan	22,400	83	340
Detroit river....	25	Green Bay.....	2,000
St. Clair.....	360	25	20	St. Mary's river..	46
St. Clair river...	32	Superior.....	32,000	135	420
Huron.....	20,400	100	270	Total length of lake navigation, 1,603			
Georgian Bay....							

The extension of the water and railroad lines beyond the State of New York, form connected lines of navigation of sixteen hundred miles by Lake, seven thousand miles by Rivers, and sixteen hundred miles by Canals, besides upward of three thousand five hundred miles of connected Railroad lines completed, and as much more in progress.

RAILWAY INVESTMENTS IN NEW ENGLAND.

The following tables, prepared by J. G. Martin, Esq., of Boston, show the transaction during 1853 in the stocks of the principal roads controlled in Boston:—

	1853.				1854.		1853.	
	Par.	Highest sales.	Lowest sales.	Shares sold.	Jan. 1st.	Jan. 2d.	Dividends.	
Boston & Lowell.....	100	196	91½	205	106	94	3	3
Boston & Maine	100	109½	102	5,296	106	102	4	4
Boston & Providence	100	92½	85	5,810	90	85	3	3½
Boston & Worcester.....	100	105	100½	4,021	103	101	3½	3½
Cheshire (preferred).....	100	58½	40	984	56	40	2	2
Concord	50	57	51½	1,776	55	52½	4	4
Concord & Montreal.....	100	45½	30	1,494	44	33	0	0
Connecticut River.....	100	62½	52½	177	60½	54	2	2
Eastern	100	98½	90	1,850	95½	88½	3	3
Fall River	100	107½	104	263	104	102	4	4
Fitchburg	100	104½	93	3,337	102	94	3	3
Grand Junction.....	100	65	30	310	32	55	0	0
Manchester & Lawrence..	100	101½	88	1,168	101	88½	3½	3½
Michigan Central.....	100	118	104	2,767	103½	101	0	8
Nashua & Lowell.....	100	112	107	50	108	106	4	4
New York Central.....	100	115½	113½	51	113½	0	0
Norfolk County.....	100	69	50	1,441	56	63	0	0
Northern (N. H.).....	100	65	44½	4,846	59½	52	2½	2½
Norwich & Worcester....	100	58½	51½	725	53	60	2	2
Ogdensburg.....	50	31½	12½	133,868	31	16½	0	0
Old Colony	100	95	77	3,809	90	91	0	0
Passumpsic	100	51	33½	1,370	50½	33	0	0
Portland & Saco.....	100	102½	96	602	99½	97	3	3
Reading.....	50	43½	43	165	49	39½	3	3
Rutland (old).....	100	42	10	2,643	38	11½	0	0
Rutland preferred 8's....	100	94½	40	422	90	40	4	4
Rutland preferred 6's....	100	70	15	169	64½	23	3	0
South Shore	25	10½	8½	1,914	9	8½	0	0
Sullivan	100	21	10	678	11	15	0	0
Vermont Central.....	50	21½	12½	510,833	18½	13½	0	0
Vermont & Canada.....	100	107½	99	1,969	105	99	4	4
Vermont & Massachusetts	100	22	16½	21,241	21½	18½	0	0
Wilmington	10	40½	35½	25,370	37½	39½	2	3
Western	100	102½	97	4,470	101½	96	3½	3½
Worcester & Nashua	100	63	54	1,551	59	58½	2½	2½

RAILROAD BONDS.

	1853.		1854.		Interest. When payable.
	Highest sales.	Low- est sales.	Amount sold.	Jan. 1.	Jan. 2.
Cheshire 6's, 1860	99½	95	\$3,100	99½	96 Jan., July.
Concord & Montreal Mort. 7's, 1860.	100½	99	53,000	99½	100 Feb. 15, Aug. 15.
Grand Junction 6's, 1870	85	73	67,200	77	79 Jan., July.
Michigan Central 8's, 1860	111½	106	21,000	10½	108 April, Oct.
Norfolk County 6's, 1854	85	70	43,700	72	80 Jan., July.
Ogdensburg 1st Mortgage 7's, 1859.	102½	89	171,900	102	91 April, Oct.
Ogdensburg 2d Mortgage 7's, 1861.	92½	62	963,000	89½	66½ April, Oct.
Rutland 1st Mortgage 7's, 1863...	100	87	205,400	99½	90½ Feb., Aug.
Rutland 2d Mortgage 7's, 1863...	74	67	46,000	...	67½ Feb., Aug.
Vermont Central 1st Mort. 7's, 1861	96	83½	1,092,700	91	87 May, Nov.
Vermont Central 2d Mort. 7's, 1867	85½	64½	1,067,400	80	67½ Jan., July.
Vermont & Mass. Mort. 6's, 1855..	87	80	94,200	84	82 Jan., July.

DIVIDENDS OF RAILROADS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The following dividends were paid in Boston on Massachusetts Railroads, July 1st, 1854:—

Stocks.	Capital.	Div. July, '54.	Amount July, '54.
Berkshire	\$320,500	\$1½	5,600
Boston and Lowell	1,830,000	3	54,900
Boston and Maine	4,155,700	4	166,228
Boston and Providence	3,160,000	3	94,800
Boston and Worcester	4,500,000	3½	157,500
Cape Cod (par \$60)	5,000 shares	3	15,000
Eastern	2,850,000	4	In Stock.
Eastern in New Hampshire	492,500	4	In Stock.
Fall River	1,050,000	4	42,000
Fitchburg	3,540,000	3	106,200
Lexington and West Cambridge (preferred)	122,000	3	3,600
Lexington and West Cambridge (old)	120,000	2½	3,000
Manchester and Lawrence	800,000	3½	28,000
New Bedford and Taunton	500,000	3½	17,500
Pittsfield and North Adams	450,000	3	13,500
Providence and Worcester	1,500,000	4	60,000
Stoughton Branch	85,400	4	3,416
Taunton Branch	2,500,000	4	10,000
Western	5,150,000	3½	180,000
Worcester and Nashua	1,800,000	2½	40,500
Woburn Branch	30,000	3	900

Total

\$1,002,894

There were also paid about an equal amount on various manufacturing Stocks.

IMPORTANT TO STEAMBOAT AGENTS.

This was an action brought by Patrick Ahern, in Dublin, against the London and Limerick Steamship Company for loss of four pipes of fine grape oil, entrusted to the defendants for conveyance from London to Limerick, per one of their steamers trading between the two ports, called the *European*. The casks containing the oil were broken on board, and all the oil was lost. The casks were shipped on the 24th October, 1852, and the steamer reached her berth in Limerick on the 29th. The defendants pleaded the dangers of the sea, the very stormy state of the weather during the voyage, and that it was impossible to save the oil. The plaintiff's case was, that the loss occurred from the negligence of the defendants in not stowing the casks in the usual way, by coigning or bedding them so that the motion or tossing of the sea would not disturb them. The jury found for the plaintiff £93 15s 7d.

PROGRESS OF RAILWAYS IN INDIANA.

The Indianapolis *Journal* has been furnished by a gentleman well acquainted with the subject, the following statement of railways in operation, in progress, and contemplated, within that State. He says: "I may have omitted some, and in some few instances the length given may not be exactly true, but they are as nearly accurate as I could make them from Colton's map of Indiana." The following list comprises the number of miles of road within that State, completed and in operation:—

	Miles.		Miles.
Central Michigan.....	40	Shelbyville & Edinburg	16
Southern Michigan & Northern Ind.	120	Shelbyville & Columbus.....	23
New Albany & Salem.....	258	Shelbyville & Knightstown	20
Lafayette & Indianapolis.....	66	Ohio & Mississippi.....	55
Terre Haute & Indianapolis	73	Indiana Central.....	72
Evansville & Crawfordsville.....	51	Richmond & Eaton	4
Martinsville & Franklin	25	Richmond & Newcastle	28
Jeffersonville	77	Bellefontaine & Indianapolis.....	84
Madison & Indianapolis	86	Peru & Indianapolis	72
Indianapolis & Cincinnati.....	88	Ohio & Indiana	20

Total number of miles completed 1,278

THE FOLLOWING LIST COMPRISES THE NUMBER OF MILES IN PROGRESS IN THAT STATE,

	Miles.		Miles.
Indiana & Illinois Central.....	75	Marion & Mississinewa.....	84
Evansville & Union.....	235	Peru & Chicago.....	73
Wabash Valley	175	Cincinnati & Fort Wayne.....	114
Cincinnati, Logansport, & Chicago.	165	Cincinnati, Cambridge, & Chicago.	130
Gosport & Indianapolis	43	Ohio & Mississippi.....	125
Fort Wayne & Chicago	140	Junction	86
Fort Wayne & Sandusky.....	18	Cincinnati, Union, & Fort Wayne..	66
Logansport & Pacific	63		
Total.....			1,592

THE FOLLOWING LIST COMPRISES SOME OF THE CONTEMPLATED ROADS, THE DISTANCES GIVEN BEING THOSE WITHIN THE STATE:—

	Miles.		Miles.
Fort Wayne & Detroit.....	40	New Albany & Sandusky	112
Fort Wayne & Coldwater	50	Fort Wayne & Southern.....	165
Cleveland & St. Louis, air-line....	175	Indianapolis & Vincennes.....	108
Indianapolis & Cincin, valley line.	82		
Total.....			732

RECAPITULATION.

Miles in operation.....	1,278	Miles in contemplation	732
Miles in progress.....	1,592		
Total.....			3,602

LENGTH OF ROUTES FOR A PACIFIC RAILROAD.

The following table shows the length of the three proposed routes for a Pacific railroad:—

From New York to Dubuque is about	miles.	1,150
From Dubuque to Puget's Sound.....		1,700
From New York to the Pacific.....		2,850
From Puget's Sound to San Francisco....		770
From New York to San Francisco, via Dubuque, Central Route.....		3,160
From New York to San Francisco, via St. Louis.....		3,214
From New York to San Francisco, via Memphis.....		3,031

RECEIPTS OF THE NEW YORK CENTRAL RAILROAD.

It will be seen from the following official statement that since the consolidation of the several lines composing the New York Central Railroad, that the increase of the freighting business has been very large, and that of the passenger business also, notwithstanding a considerable reduction of fare under the consolidation act and other arrangements. The aggregate business of the line for the year, estimating for May, June, and July, will, it is believed, exceed \$5,500,000.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS FROM PASSENGERS AND FREIGHT FOR NINE MONTHS COMMENCING AUGUST 1ST, 1852 AND 1853; THE RECEIPT IN 1852 BEING DERIVED FROM THE RETURNS OF THE OLD COMPANIES.

		Passengers.	Freight.	Total.	Increase.
August	1853....	\$349,125 76	\$151,285 18	\$500,410 94	
	1852....	294,510 80	79,565 19	374,075 99	\$126,334 95
September	1853....	371,332 06	217,532 91	588,864 97	
	1852....	340,916 97	97,758 00	438,674 97	150,190 00
October	1853....	326,741 54	231,551 75	558,293 29	
	1852....	300,659 39	115,891 78	416,551 17	141,742 12
November	1853....	242,319 53	213,956 97	456,276 50	
	1852....	209,775 25	152,114 10	361,889 35	94,387 15
December	1853....	201,581 78	229,771 33	431,353 11	
	1852....	160,657 89	197,059 32	357,717 21	73,635 90
January	1854....	161,233 87	167,456 28	328,690 19	
	1853....	126,767 31	185,599 79	312,367 10	16,323 05
February	1854....	145,030 02	164,618 73	309,648 75	
	1853....	125,469 01	155,344 46	280,813 47	28,835 28
March	1854....	205,044 62	224,024 73	529,069 35	
	1853....	168,189 01	156,322 69	324,511 70	104,557 65
April	1854....	275,856 21	250,164 47	526,020 68	
	1853....	236,193 58	177,213 46	413,407 04	112,613 64
Total increase, 9 months					848,619 74
Total receipts					4,128,627 74
Add for arrears of mail service lately adjusted with the department, not before included.....					37,937 94
Grand total					4,166,565 68

C. VIBBARD, General Superintendent.

RATES OF PASSAGE FROM SAN FRANCISCO TO NEW YORK.

According to the *Alta California*, the Steamship Companies have determined upon fixing the prices of passage at the following rates:—

GOLDEN GATE, P. M. S. S. COMPANY.

		Through Tickets Including 1st. Transit.
Upper Saloon.....	\$260	\$280
Main Saloon.....	220	210
Second Cabin.....	185	205
Steerage.....	125	145

PACIFIC, NICARAGUA LINE—Including Isthmus Charges.

Upper Saloon.....	\$270	Second Cabin.....	\$200
Main Saloon.....	240	Steerage.....	140

UNCLE SAM, INDEPENDENT LINE—Including Transit, Mule Hire and Railroad.

Upper Saloon.....	\$270	Second Cabin.....	\$200
Main Saloon.....	240	Steerage.....	145

Without Isthmus Transit Tickets.

Upper Saloon.....	\$250	Second Cabin.....	\$180
Main Saloon.....	220	Steerage.....	124

THE STEAM-SHIP AND THE SAIL-SHIP.

A FACT FOR SHIP-OWNERS—RIVALRY WITHOUT LOSS.

It used to be a prevalent notion among many of the owners of sailing vessels, says the *London Economist*, that the establishment of the great ocean lines of steam navigation had been highly detrimental to their interest, although few could say in what manner they were injured by it. A little practical knowledge of the operation of steam navigation would have taught them the fallacy of such an opinion; for while the facility and rapidity of postal and passenger intercourse created a great increase of trade, and consequently of employment for sailing ships—in goods only an insignificant portion of articles of high value and small bulk, and of passengers none; for it is a well known fact, in regard at least to the steam intercourse with India, that there are a greater number of passengers who now proceed to and from India in sailing ships via the Cape of Good Hope than there were before the establishment of the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Company. Steam navigation, in fact, by the improved means of transit and intercourse which it affords, creates the traffic which supports it. A striking fact of the benefit which the owners of sailing vessels are deriving from these great ocean steam enterprises was elicited at the late annual meeting of the proprietors of the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company, namely, that the company had in actual employment in the transport of coals to their various stations at home and abroad no less than 304 sailing vessels, and of the aggregate tonnage of 160,000 tons, manned by 8,000 seamen and officers, and the freight of which amounted to £360,000.

RAILWAYS TWENTY YEARS SINCE.

The Philadelphia *Bulletin* has an extract from a number of the London Courier of June 9th, 1829, in which was the following:—

"More than half a column is occupied with an extract from the Birmingham Gazette, describing the opening of "Shutt End Railway." This work, which was then regarded as extraordinary, ran from Kingswinford to the Staffordshire and Worcestershire Canal, and was of the enormous length of *three miles and one-eighth*! A locomotive engine, then a marvel of art, drew a train of eight cars, carrying 360 passengers, from the foot of the first inclined plane to the head of the second, and returned, being a distance of three and three-quarter miles, in half an hour, or at the rate of *seven and a half miles per hour*! Subsequently, it drew a train of coal and passenger cars, the whole train weighing 131 tons, a distance of one and seven-eighth miles, in thirty minutes, being at the rate of *nearly three and a half miles per hour*. Afterwards the engine, with only the tender and twenty passengers, ran a mile on the road at the rate of eleven miles per hour! All these exploits were witnessed by an immense crowd, who were amazed at them; and his lordship, the Earl of Bradford, graciously 'expressed himself much pleased with the extraordinary powers of the engine.' It should be remembered that it is only twenty five years, or within the age of most of our readers, that these wretchedly slow performances, which would not be tolerated on the meanest railroad now in existence, were regarded as almost miraculous in England."

UNLOADING CANAL BOATS.

Mr. Amos Young, of Georgetown, has received a patent for an improved method of discharging cargo from canal boats. What he claims as new and useful, is the method of discharging and transferring coal or cargo from canal boats, by causing the boat to "free itself" of the cargo by settling or falling off the boat in the lock, in drawing off the water from the latter, in such a manner that the cargo contained in one or more cargo boxes or trucks, provided with suspension trucks attachments or devices as specified—is left suspended at its draught or floating level in the canal, on a suspension truck or railroad built on the sides of it over the lock; whereby the cargo may be discharged from the boat with dispatch, and with but little labor, and be run off at a *high level*, to any distant place of transfer, and there be transferred from one receptacle to another without inconveniently detaining the boat, and whereby many other advantages specified are obtained; the said cargo-box, with its suspension truck, attachments or devices, boat, dock and suspension truck or railroad being arranged and operating together as set forth—and the whole serving to economize time, labor, and reduce the cost of trains and delivery at a *high level*, in a practicable manner.

LARGEST STEAMSHIP—THE HIMALAYA.

A new and powerful steamship, called the Himalaya, has been built in England for the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company. From the Thames to Southampton, her average progress during thirteen hours that she was under way, notwithstanding unfavorable weather during part of the time, was $13\frac{1}{2}$ knots per hour. The Himalaya is said to be the largest steamship in the world. She is 3,550 tons register, and equal to over 4,000 tons burden. She is 372 feet 9 inches in length, exceeding the length of the Boston clipper, Great Republic, lately burned at New York, by 47 feet, but not of equal tonnage. The Himalaya is a screw steamer built of iron, and has engines of 700 horse power. She has accommodation for 200 first and second class passengers—stowage for 1,000 tons of measurement goods on freight, and can take 1,200 tons of coal.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.**COTTON CANVAS AND COTTON CORDAGE.**

The following communication of an intelligent correspondent of the *New Orleans Commercial Bulletin*, showing the advantages to be derived from the manufacture of cotton cordage, as well as the superior excellence of the wrought fabric, will interest many of the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*. "The invention," says the *Bulletin*, "is a new one, and of surpassing importance, if it possesses the merits ascribed to it by our correspondent, of which we have no doubt."

The day is rapidly approaching, when our vast mercantile marine is to be wholly clothed in the product of our great staple, cotton. For the last twenty years, cotton canvas has been surely and slowly working its way into our naval and mercantile marine, against the strongest prejudices of "old salts," till at last, it is now the only duck used by American shipping. The success of cotton duck has prepared the way for the introduction of cotton cordage. It has already made its way largely into domestic use. It forms the twine in all the shops, and the clothes lines and the bed cords of the housekeeper and the plow lines of the farmer. It has for several years been used as a part of the running rigging of small craft, but it was not till very recently that the experiment was tried of making the entire running rigging of a ship from cotton rope, and within a few months several ships at the east have had their entire outfit, of standing and running rigging, both made of cotton cordage. During the recent commercial convention at Charleston, there came into that port, a ship rigged entirely with cotton cordage. Several new ships at Boston, we are told, are now being rigged with the same cordage. A recent letter from a ship builder in that port, who is using cotton cordage for one of his own ships, predicts that in ten years it will be the only cordage in use on shipboard. A recent important invention will facilitate and hasten its rapid introduction. The man who has conferred so important benefits upon the country by the invention, among other useful machinery, of the one that produces the beautiful American gimlet wood screws, and makes them almost as cheap as nails were a few years ago, has constructed a spinner for the yarn of a rope that spins, at less cost, more than six times the quantity in a given time of the old spinner. In this machine he has produced an entirely new movement in spinning—one long sought for but not before obtained. Its adaptation for spinning yarns for cordage is said to be admirable. Its layers of the rope are on the same principle as his spinners, and are said to be superior to any in use. They make cordage from the smallest line to the heaviest standing rigging, hawsers and cables of a ship, and of the finest quality and at an exceedingly small cost. Several of the machines have just been put in operation for the first time in New York city. They are manufacturing from three to five tons a day of beautiful heavy cordage, which is sold as fast as the machines produce it. Other factories of the same machinery are being erected in Philadelphia and Boston, and one has been projected on the Ohio river. The advantages of cotton cordage are, that it is less affected than any other rope by exposure to the weather, suffers less by abrasion, does more service, is as strong of the same size, weighs less, is of greater length in the same weight, and when worn out is worth 4 to 5 cents per lb.

or one third its cost, for paper making, while hempen and manilla junk is scarcely worth its transportation. Cotton, unlike hemp and manilla, has no affinity for moisture or water; it does not readily absorb it, and when strongly impregnated with its natural oil, resists the action of moisture for a long time. A rope made by the newly invented machine is so compactly laid that wet does not penetrate beyond its surface, and a large rope may remain a long time in the water, without its interior portions being wet, and therefore it can be used a long time without the body of the rope being injured by water. This is one reason of its durability. For the same reason it does not shrink and swell like hempen and other rope, is more pliable, lighter, and easier handled. Made by the new process it stretches no more, if as much, as other rope, and it requires no paint or tar to protect it from the weather; a mildew may cover its surface and blacken it, but it does not penetrate the body of the rope. Not long since, we saw a cotton rope that had sustained a heavy platform in the open weather for two years, which, when cut, showed the body of the rope to be as bright in color and as strong as when first put together.

The power of cotton, compared with hemp, to resist the action of wet, is illustrated by putting water into a bale of each article. In cotton it will not diffuse itself, except by very slow degrees, and it generates no heat, and very slow decomposition. In hemp it diffuses itself rapidly, and soon produces spontaneous heat and rapid decomposition. These qualities of cotton render it, as experience proves, the most valuable material for cordage. A large manufacturer of cordage in New York, writing on the subject, says "the days of manilla rope will be numbered as soon as qualities of cotton cordage are known." He estimates the durability of cotton cordage to be twice that of other cordage.

On our western rivers where the sandy and muddy waters wear and rot hemp and manilla cordage so rapidly, and especially in our southern river navigation where the muddy and tepid waters of the streams destroy in a few weeks the best hempen lines, cotton rope will be peculiarly adapted. Its resistance of the effect of wet, and the atmosphere, and its close texture, which prevent the mud and sand penetrating it, will preserve it longer from decay than any other rope. Its lightness and flexibility will give it a decided preference among steamboatmen and flatboatmen, for the long check lines with which their boats are landed, and which constitute the principal cordage they use. A large cotton line will float on the surface, and may be easily run from a floating boat to the shore without difficulty, while a heavy hemp or manilla rope sinks, is swept by the force of the current from the control of the men running it from the boat, at any distance, to the shore. This is one of the chief dangers of flatboatmen, and this fact alone will commend cotton cordage to their favor.

As it is peculiarly fitted for our river navigation, New Orleans must become a large market for the sale of cotton cordage. And as we have vast quantities of loose cotton, gathered from the presses, pickeries and from factor's samples, and as a great deal arrives here wet, stained, and in a condition unfit for shipment, which would do for immediate use, but which is sold at low prices compared with the same staples in shipping order, the stock out of which to make the rope could be obtained here cheaper than at any other point in the world. The machinery requires no great intelligence or skill in its management; it does its own work complete without much aid from human hands or minds. Twenty-five girls, thirty boys, and ten men—who can be taught their duties in a week—constitutes all the manual labor required for a factory that will produce five tons of heavy cordage per day. All these facts seem to adapt it peculiarly as a business for this locality. The plan and objects of the machinery we have referred to, is altogether different from those recently set in operation in Lafayette, and now unfortunately destroyed, and their patent rights and products would in no way, we are told, conflict with each other. If any gentleman feels sufficient interest in this matter to desire further information in relation to it, by writing a note to the editors of this paper, he can have further details.

It is a matter of deep interest to cotton planters—for if the predictions of those who have tried the thing, be fulfilled, the extent of our present marine and navy would consume 800,000 bales of cotton annually, it is estimated, to supply it with cordage. An increased demand and consumption of cotton to that extent, would preserve and increase the price of cotton land, and its products to an incalculable amount. To aid and hasten its introduction, it would be policy for the South to furnish a full supply, even if she did it at prime cost, or at loss in manufacturing. But this is unnecessary, for if cotton does not rise above ten cents a pound for middlings, cotton cordage can undersell all other cordage in the market, and yield a large profit to the manufacturer.

COTTON MANUFACTORY IN THE SOUTH AND WEST.

The Louisville papers state that the success of the extensive cotton manufacturing establishment of H. D. Newcomb & Brother, of Louisville, at Cannelton, Ky., during the last year, has been unprecedented in the history of modern manufactures. Their mammoth mill now in operation at that place, turns off a daily production of goods, such as the very best domestic fabrics in market, equal to 15,252 yards.

The Columbus (Geo.) *Inquirer*, in noticing the first shipment of cotton yarn to New York by the "Southern Rights Manufacturing Company," of Monticello, says:—

"Some of our Columbus Factories have been in the habit of sending pretty large orders to New York and Philadelphia for more than twelve months past, which goes to prove that we are no ways behind the rest of the world, either in the facility for furnishing goods of superior quality, or at rates as favorable to the large purchaser as those at which he can buy the same goods nearer his own door. And the *cream* of the circumstance does not stop here, judging from a single transaction that occurred during the summer of 1853. A bale of goods manufactured in this city was sent to Philadelphia and sold. The next steamer from that city brought back the identical bale, which had been purchased by a merchant from the interior of Georgia, and who, on being told the cloth was made in Columbus, remarked, he thought it was the cheapest and best piece of goods of the kind that he had purchased for many years."

Up to the 1st September last, there had been shipped from Wakulla, Florida, 301 bales cotton yarn, valued at \$9,350, all of which was manufactured at the Madison Factory, owned by Capt. N. P. Willard. Since then there has been shipped 534 bales, valued at \$16,020. Of these 456 bales were manufactured at the Madison Factory, and 78 bales at the Monticello Factory. A small lot, manufactured at Madison, has been shipped from Cedar Keys. The yarns from these mills are now sold in most of the stores of Middle Florida, and the adjoining counties of Georgia.

The Monticello Factory (says the *Wakulla Times*) has been for some weeks manufacturing cotton cloth of a good quality.

STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES PATENT OFFICE.

The following table from the last published report of the Patent Office, exhibits the progress of that establishment for the twelve years commencing in 1841 and ending in 1842 inclusive:—

TABLE EXHIBITING THE BUSINESS OF THE PATENT OFFICE FOR TWELVE YEARS ENDING
DECEMBER 31, 1852.

Years.	Applica. filed.	Caveats filed.	Patents issued.	Cash received.	Cash expended.
1841.....	847	312	495	\$40,413 01	\$23,065 87
1842.....	761	291	517	36,505 68	31,241 48
1843.....	819	315	531	35,315 81	30,776 96
1844.....	1,045	380	502	42,509 26	36,344 73
1845.....	1,246	452	502	51,076 14	39,395 65
1846.....	1,272	448	619	50,264 16	46,158 71
1847.....	1,531	533	572	63,111 19	41,878 35
1848.....	1,628	607	660	67,576 69	58,905 84
1849.....	1,955	595	1,076	80,752 78	77,716 44
1850.....	2,193	602	995	86,927 05	80,100 95
1851.....	2,258	760	869	95,738 61	86,916 93
1852.....	2,639	996	1,020	112,056 34	95,916 91

PROPERTIES OF IRON.

In the concluding lecture of Prof. Smith at the Smithsonian Institution, the lecturer dwelt upon the tendency of iron to undergo a change from a fibrous to a granular condition, thus causing the abstraction of an indefinite amount of its tenacity and strength. Fibrous iron, by being for a considerable time subjected to concussion, will become granular, and therefore weak. A knowledge of this principle has induced the French government to disallow the use of iron axles on their public diligences beyond a certain time—they must then be removed. Iron cannon, originally very strong, become weaker and weaker by use, from the loosening of the texture of their substance.

A HISTORY OF THE DISCOVERY OF GOLD IN CALIFORNIA.

BY GEORGE M. EVANS.

1st. In a volume of a work published in Spain in 1690, by one Lyola Cavello or Cabello, (a Padre of the Church of Rome, officiating at the time at the Mission of San Jose, Bay of San Francisco, which was built in 1672,) and called "*Recordado en Historia el California Alta*," he states that on some streams to the north gold was seen, but it was only in small quantities on the "*Placeros*."

2d. In the year 1842, James D. Dana, A. M., in his system of minerology, page 552, (first edition,) says:—"The gold rocks and veins of quartz were observed by the author in 1842, near the Umpqua River in Southern Oregon, and pebbles from similar rocks were met with along the shores of the Sacramento, in California, and the resemblance to other gold districts was remarked, but there was no opportunity of exploring the country at the time." Again, on pages 251-2, describing the localities in which gold has been found, he says:—"In the Rocky Mountains near Salt Lake, in California between the Sierra Nevada and Sacramento and San Joaquin rivers." He also says:—"The California mines are mostly alluvial; the gold is found in the gravel and sands of the valleys and beds of streams leading from the Sierra Nevada into the adjoining valley of the Sacramento and San Joaquin."

3d. During the month of October or November, 1845, in a house or groggery on Pacific street, San Francisco, (as it is now called,) a Mexican who was called "Salvador" was shot because he had a bag of gold dust, described as about 1,000 to 1,200 dollars, and would not tell where he got it. At last, when dying, he pointed in the direction of San Jose Mountains and said, "*lejos, lejos*," (beyond, beyond.)

4th. On the 16th of September, 1846, a party, mostly Mormons, went up the San Joaquin, partly to join Lieut. Gillespie's party of U. S. marines and volunteers, in search of warlike Indians, and principally to form a settlement at the junction of the Stanislaus and San Joaquin rivers. On returning this party stopped to cook dinner on the sand point (S. E. by E. point) of the small island opposite to what is called the entrance to Stockton, then called Lindsey's Lake. After dinner, one George M. Evans and John Sirrene, now in New York city, commenced to pick yellow specks out of the bank, done them up in paper, took them to San Francisco, (then Yerba Buena,) tested them with acids, and found that it was gold, but not having any idea of the gold being in such quantity as was afterwards proved, put the specimens by, and afterwards part, with other minerals, was sent to Peale's Museum as a present. The reason of my looking for minerals was in consequence of Salvador's death.

5th. The following August (1847,) Major Reading and T. W. Perkins and myself went South from San Francisco, and being in search of Asbestos, we explored the mountains near San Diego and near the river Gila, where we found gold more abundantly than has since been found on the North Fork of the American. This is the same place from whence the present excitement of "New Discoveries of Gold in California" has arisen. We could do nothing in consequence of the Indians being hostile in the neighborhood. The Major lost the chief use of his left arm—while I have yet the marks on my right arm of arrow wounds received at the time. To prove the truth of this assertion, persons in this town can prove that 14 months since, April, 1853, I told of that same place.

6th. When the Mormon battalion was disbanded in 1847, a number of the Mormons came to San Francisco, and amongst them was one Henderson Cox and one Beardsley, who boarded in the same house with me. They having worked in the Georgia mines, told me, in conversation on the subject, that as they were about prospecting for a road (since called the Mormon Pass) for the Mormons to return to Salt Lake, and in so doing, would prospect the streams in their route, (this was in the end of August or first of September, 1847.) I then described the death of Salvador and where I found the gold, and gave them a chart of the country from memory. In the following January I returned to San Francisco from the journey above referred to, when I received an invitation to go to Mormon Island, so named afterwards by Henderson Cox. On the 19th January, 1848, I went there, and with the bounty they gave me, and what I worked out myself, I had \$19,000 on the 8th February, 1848.

7th. On the 9th of February, I, with Henderson Cox, Beardsley, Beers, two Shepards, and a number more were in the lower end of the mill-race, when Marshall, the overseer, and his little girl came in, and the child picked up a pretty stone as she called it, and showed it to her father, who pronounced it gold. He was so excited about it that he saddled his horse and that day rode to Sutter's Fort to tell Captain

Sutter—but he did not believe it worth notice, and for a while the idea died away. The Mormons wishing to keep their discoveries a secret from people not Mormons, worked out the gold and said nothing more.

8th. On the 1st April, 1848, the first mail from San Francisco to Salt Lake was started, and a number of the "*California Star*" was printed purposely for that mail, containing a special article written by Dr. Fourgend and myself, concerning the minerals and metals of California, and among other mentioned metals was gold—but as the printer and publishers were Mormons, the full facts were not stated.

It was not until the 12th of May, 1848, that the existence of gold in quantity in California was publicly made known in San Francisco by Samuel Brannan, High Bishop of the Mormons, and of Vigilance Committee notoriety.

Beardsley and Henderson Cox were killed at the foot of the Sierra Nevada in September, 1848.

Marshall died either four days before he arrived home in the Eastern States with a barrel of gold, or four days from the coast.

To enable persons to test quartz rock who are not mineralogists, I subjoin the rule laid down by James D. Dana, in his "*System of Mineralogy*." He says: "It is a simple process. The rock is first pounded up fine, and sifting a quantity of the sand so obtained, is washed in a shallow iron or tin pan, and as the gold sinks the material above is allowed to pass off into some receptacle. The gold is thus left in the angle of the pan by a repetition of the process; a further portion is obtained, and when all the gold has sunk and the sand reduced to a manageable quantity, the gold is amalgamated with clean mercury, (quicksilver) the amalgam is next strained to separate any excess of mercury, and finally is heated and the mercury expelled, leaving the gold."

MANUFACTURE OF MINERAL CANDLES.

There is a quarry of white sandstone about twelve miles to the west of Edinburgh, upon which rests a thick bed of dark-colored shale, over which the hot trap must have once flowed, and thereby was subjected to a sort of natural distillation. This found its way into the crevices of the white stone below where it is now found. It is a light waxy substance, varying from the color of gamboge to that of dark amber, melts at the same temperature as beeswax, which it equals in hardness, and burns with a bright flame. This substance was molded into candles, which, though rather smoky, answered well enough for cottagers for a long time, and would have rested there had not some one, without taking any hint from this natural phenomenon, however, thought of distilling shale. Some of the shales of the oolite are very rich in inflammable matter, and yield in the retort, oils, naphthas, and a waxy substance known as *parafine*. Of this candles are made equal to wax, and extensive works have been recently erected in England and Scotland for their manufacture. What is more wonderful is, these snow-white candles can be made of dark Irish turf, and works are in progress to convert the black bogs of Kildare into parafine candles.

THE COAL-FIELDS OF THE WORLD.

From an interesting selected article, published in the *Practical Mechanics' Journal*, we condense a brief account of the coal fields of the world. Great Britain occupies the first rank both in the quantity and quality of her coal production. The amount which she yearly produces is 32,000,000 tons; Belgium comes next with 5,000,000 tons; the United States produces nearly the same quantity; France 4,200,000; Prussia 3,500,000; and Austria about 700,000 tons.

Belgium, the second coal producing country on the globe, is traversed in an E. N. E. direction by a large zone of bituminous coal formation, from which she derives her supply. This zone occupies an extent of 331,392 acres, or about one twenty-second part of her whole area. France produces coal from fifty-six of her eighty-six departments. This yield is divided among eighty-eight coal basins, and comprises both the bituminous and non-bituminous varieties. Her production, which is now 4,200,000 tons, was at the commencement of the French Revolution but 240,000 tons, the greater part of which came from two coal-fields. The general quality of her coal is inferior to that of the British. Coal is daily getting into greater favor with the French, and it may reasonably be expected that with increased demand and the growing facilities of railway transport, it will be reduced so much in price that it may be employed in gas

establishments without the necessity of receiving aid from abroad. The national steam marine of France even now derives its coal from Great Britain.

Many of the provinces of Prussia are rich in coal basins similar to those in England. Peat, however, is in extensive use in Prussia, Bavaria, and Wirtemberg. At Berlin and its environs it is employed in almost all the workshops, and on account of its application to the production of gas, its consumption is regularly increasing. Austria possesses extensive coal beds, but the working of them has not yet been carried on to any great extent, there being a plentiful supply of wood, and at low prices.

The United States yield bituminous and anthracite coal in abundance. She is young and vigorous. She possesses railways and ships to aid in developing her mineral resources, and doubtless in a few years more her coal production will be only exceeded by that of England. The following is a list of her principal coal fields :—

COAL-FIELDS OF THE UNITED STATES.

States.	Area of the State.		Proportion of Coal.
	Sq. Miles.	Sq. Miles.	
1. Alabama.....	50,875	3,400	1-14th.
2. Georgia.....	58,200	150	1-386th.
3. Tennessee.....	44,720	4,300	1-10th.
4. Kentucky.....	39,015	13,500	1-3d.
5. Virginia.....	64,000	21,195	1-3d.
6. Maryland.....	10,829	550	1-20th.
7. Ohio.....	38,850	11,900	1-3d.
8. Indiana.....	34,800	7,700	1-5th.
9. Illinois.....	59,130	44,000	3-4ths.
10. Pennsylvania.....	43,960	15,437	1-3d.
11. Michigan.....	60,820	5,000	1-20th.
12. Missouri.....	60,384	6,000	1-10th.

The above table gives an aggregate area in 12 States of nearly 565,283 square miles, of which 133,132 miles, or nearly one-fourth, is composed of coal beds. After making all due allowances for such coal beds as would never be reached by the miner, we have left an enormous yielding area.

Canada contains no workable beds of coal, but Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Newfoundland are said to be rich in the article.

Most of the minor countries in Europe yield coal. In Russia, on the northern shore of the Black Sea, bituminous coal (brown) has been found in abundance. The richest Russian coal field is on the shores of the Sea of Azof, between the Dnieper and Donetz Rivers; it is said to be equal in quality to the best English, and may be delivered at a port on the Dnieper or Don Rivers for about 4s. or 5s. per ton. Little is known of the carboniferous system of Northern Russia. St. Petersburg is lighted with gas produced from English coal.

Coal beds are found in Egypt and various parts of Africa and Asia. China will doubtless become, ere long, a coal producing country.

THE FUTURE OF CALIFORNIA GOLD MINES.

Dr. John B. Trask has completed his geological examination of the Sierra Nevada and coast mountains, carried on under the authority of the California Legislature. He reports very favorably on the agricultural and mineral resources of that State. Dr. Trask comments with some severity on the opinions of scientific men, both at home and abroad, who have been haranguing popular assemblies on the utter impossibility of the auriferous veins of this country proving to be more than a mere ephemeral show, and unworthy the confidence of reflecting minds. These unfavorable opinions, the Doctor asserts, are now proved to be unfounded, from subsequent explorations conducted on these veins, and notwithstanding the disadvantages of manufactured public opinion against which this branch of industry has been obliged to contend, it has now become one of the permanent employments of the State, and will obtain a position second to none within the next two years. He says: "The permanency of the character of these mines would scarcely have been demonstrated in so short a period of time in any other country or State except California, and is in true keeping with the firmness of purpose manifested in every great undertaking by the citizens of that State, and is but another mark of that indomitable perseverance in overcoming difficulties, for which they have become peculiarly characterized and proverbial."

LEAD ORE IN TENNESSEE.

The *Rodgersville Times* says:—We have on our table a couple of specimens of lead ore from a mine on the land of our friend A. M. C. Taylor, of Carter County. One of the specimens is a simple "blossom," found on the top of the ground, and is full of small particles of metal. The second come from two feet below the surface, and is, from appearance, almost as pure as the metal itself. We learn that many of the hunters of the region in which this ore is found use it as lead, obviating the necessity of purchasing the article. There are inexhaustible quantities of this ore imbedded in the hills and mountains of Carter, and its existence has been known for many years, though from the difficulty of getting to market, of course the mines have not to any extent been worked. A brighter prospect is now dawning. At no distant day the cars will be running upon the East Tennessee and Virginia Railroad, extending in a southern direction to all the markets and cities upon the southern seaboard, and in an eastern direction to Lynchburg, Richmond, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, and every other place of note or importance; and when this great thoroughfare *does* once get into successful operation, not only will the citizens of Carter, with their inexhaustible supplies of iron and lead, feel its exhilarating and life-giving effects, but the same influence will extend throughout upper East Tennessee, giving renewed life and energy to every branch of business of penning up a market for our marble and copper, coal and iron, and hydraulic lime, &c., and also for the products of our rich and fertile lands.

We are pleased, in this connection, to learn that the work on this road is being pushed forward with as much energy and rapidity as the severity of the season will admit. Without some unforeseen accident, the whole line will be completed in from two to three years. The condition of the company is good. The affairs of the road are managed with ability and economy, and without an accident, as we have said, nothing will now retard its rapid progress to completion.

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TURKISH COAL MINES.

Between the Bosphorus and Heraclea are boundless fields of coal, which crops out on the side of the hills, so that no mining would be required to get the coal; and besides this great facility in its production, the hills are of such an easy slope that a tram-road would convey the coal wagons down to the ships on the seacoast without any difficulty. No nation but the Turks would delay to make use of such a source of enormous wealth as this coal would naturally supply, when it can be had with such remarkable ease so near to the great maritime city of Constantinople. It seems to be a peculiarity in human nature that those who are too stupid to undertake any useful work are frequently jealous of the interference of others who are more able and willing than themselves, as the old fable of the dog in the manger exemplifies. I understand that more than one English company have been desirous of opening these immense mines of wealth, on the condition of paying a large sum or a good percentage to the Turkish government; but they are jealous of a foreigner's undertaking that which they are incapable of carrying out themselves. So English steamers bring coal to Constantinople, which costs I don't know what by the time it arrives within a few miles of a spot which is as well furnished with the most useful if not the most ornamental of minerals as Newcastle-upon-Tyne itself. (Since the above was written, the coal-field of Eragle has been opened, under the direction of English engineers, and the coals are sent to Constantinople.)—*Hon. Robert Curzon's Armenia.*

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NEW PULP AND MACHINE FOR PAPER MAKING.

The *Long Island Vindicator* says that Mr. Samuel Nolan, late of Dublin, Ireland, now of New York, and his brother-in-law, Dr. Antisel, have invented and patented a paper-making machine and pulp, that will materially reduce the price of paper. Dr. Antisel has invented a pulp which, in its raw state, will not cost more than one-sixth of a cent per lb., and by aid of the machine invented by Mr. Nolan, can be brought into market, made into a paper, at a cost of about four cents per lb.

If this is true, the value of the invention is evident. It is stated that the pulp is as white and clear as the most clearly bleached cotton, and is capable of the most delicate tint. The harshness and transparency of the straw paper is not to be found in it, while it is capable of the highest finish, maintaining all the pliancy and toughness of the pure linen raga.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

STEEL PENS—RISE OF LABOR IN ENGLAND—RATE OF INSURANCE.

It will be seen by the subjoined letter from Mr. COMER, that the price of labor is advancing in England as well as in the United States. will also be noticed that our insurance companies are charging "one hundred and fifty per cent" more than the Liverpool underwriters. The inquiry of our correspondent "Why this is so?" we must refer to the Boston offices. Their answer we will most cheerfully publish in the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*.

One word in regard to the pens referred to in this letter. Mr. COMER is a most accomplished penman, with a large experience in every detail of a thorough commercial education. He has spent much time in England, and these pens have been "got up" under his supervision and direction. The Editor of this Magazine is not a very accomplished penman, but he may be allowed to say that he has never used a steel pen which has afforded him so much satisfaction. It does not corrode as soon as many of the pens in use. The pens of Mr. COMER's importation are numbered from one to four, and adapted to the great variety of style practiced by our American book-keepers. We have used them for the last year or two, and we have no disposition to change, unless some mechanical genius will invent a pen or machine that will render it impossible for us to write otherwise than legibly and handsomely.

COMER'S COMMERCIAL COLLEGE, }
BOSTON. August 7th, 1854. }

To FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine* :—

DEAR SIR:—Herewith I forward you samples of an invoice of steel pens just received, manufactured at Birmingham to my own order and pattern. There are four numbers, adapted to different styles of writing; but as I am personally interested in the matter, I leave you to decide upon their quality. One fact in connection with this subject may, I think, be interesting to you, and that is the extraordinary rise in the price of labor and materials of this nature in England. I have been in the habit of importing steel pens for some years past, and the prices have ranged remarkably uniform; while for this last invoice I am, in consequence of the rise alluded to, charged seventy-five per cent advance upon the invoice prices of last year; and this is not all, for upon receipt of invoice per Steamer Niagara via New York, announcing that the goods were to be forwarded by the screw-steamer Alps to this port, and not being advised of insurance having been effected in England, I had to pay the Boston Insurance Company of this city, one-and-one-quarter per cent, when the same goods, I afterwards found upon receipt of shipper's charges, had been insured in Liverpool for one-half of one per cent, thus making the enormous difference of one hundred and fifty per cent in favor of having the goods insured on the other side of the Atlantic. Surely our insurance companies must be blind to their own interests in this matter. Can you inform me why this is so?

I am, dear sir, with much esteem,

Your obliged obedient servant,

GEORGE N. COMER.

A SHORT CHAPTER ON DRY GOODS.

We cut from one of our exchanges the following rather humorous, or sarcastic—or both—remarks on the influence of dry goods. We are quite sure the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* will not say they are ill-timed or inapposite to the pages of a work devoted to trade in all its varieties and bearings:—

Among all the glorious institutions of our happy land, there are few which, in our opinion, ought to take precedence in public esteem of the great but unpretending Dry Goods Institution. After the sterling Anglo-Saxon qualities which were our

national birthright, perhaps nothing has contributed more than dry goods to the greatness of the republic. It has been the dry-nurse of our wealth—the fosterer of our early Commerce—a power that existed before the Constitution, and will probably survive it. Nay, for that matter, are not dry goods coeval with “original sin?”—at once the emblem and the consequence of “man’s first disobedience?” Has it not outlived many nations and races, and will it not be found flourishing in immortal youth, enterprise, and active competition when the crack of doom foretells the wreck of elements and crush of worlds?

But although dry goods is a world-wide fact, (except, perhaps, among some unmissionaried tropical heathen, whose ignorant sinlessness requires no covering at present,) it may be called an American fact *par excellence*, rising indeed to the importance of one of the regular institutions of the country. In no other land does it exercise that paramount influence, or is of such universal acceptance. Dry goods and the law engage the intellectual energies of the great majority of our citizens, apart from the mechanical and laboring classes. They have achieved higher results than any other profession or occupation.

We fancy we hear some envious fellow of another pursuit suggest “groceries!” in a dissentient whisper; but, while we are ready to acknowledge grocery importance and believe in grocery influences—profitable, saccharine, and otherwise—we cannot consent to place groceries on an equality with law and dry goods. Groceries may become wealthy, corpulent, and occasionally aldermanic—indeed, in some few cases it has gained the distinction of “eminent” from newspapers; but greatness is beyond its sphere. We never yet heard of a truly great grocerymen, whereas, in the other two pre-eminent avocations, greatness is a matter of every-day occurrence!

Did the reader ever seriously reflect on the grand part performed by dry goods in modern society and civilization? Let him look around among his acquaintances, past and present—extend his view through the controlling political and financial circles of the time—and he will be astonished to discover how many of the most prominent characters have risen to their present rank by aid of dry goods. No matter though they failed in this supreme calling. Everybody fails; it is one of the conditions of success; and a failure in dry goods is equivalent to a triumph in business—which is life. Do we not see broken jobbers become wealthy bankers—bankrupt importers of muslins become eminent merchants—wholesale unfortunates in bobbin and sheeting afterwards command fortune in a thousand ways? Did not Baruum himself graduate in dry goods? How many of our authors and artists trained their youthful intellects in vigorous dry goods discipline—and how many of them ought never to have forsaken the bustling *alma maters* where they were taught the rudiments of double entry and the mysteries of *mousselines*? We might trace the influences of dry goods through all the ramifications of society; but it is needless, as they will be evident to every one who will think on the subject. This truth is established by the fact, that among all the benefits to be derived from dry goods, failure is not the least.

To look higher, may it not be truly said, that in this age of steam and manufacture, the welfare of dry goods is the chief object of the true statesman’s solicitude—that the necessities of dry goods shapes the course of empire? Why is Britain extending her expensive conquests in the East, but to disseminate dry goods, and keep her myriad fabricators busy, lest the demon of discontent should find some mischief for their idle hands to do? What is our never-ending slavery question, with its annexations and agitations, but a question of dry goods at bottom—of commonest cotton goods? In short, look in whatever direction we may, we shall find dry goods mixed up more or less with every subject and principle—social, political, or religious; and the cry of the age ought to be, “Mammon is god, and dry goods is his prophet!”

HOW TO PRESERVE TIMBER FROM THE SHIP WORM.

The United States Naval Inspector at the Gosport Navy Yard, Virginia, states that after making various experiments to preserve timber, &c., from the attacks of the teredo or ship worm, he found that *zinc paint* was the best remedy, and that it also will keep copper or other metals, submerged in water, more free from barnacles, &c., than any other paint. Would it not be well for some of our railroad companies who have to build pile bridges over salt water, to *kyanize* their piles with a preparation of zinc before driving? If zinc paint will prevent the destruction of ships’ bottoms by the teredo, the discovery is one of great importance to ship builders and merchants.—*Nat. Intelligencer*.

CHINESE MERCANTILE OPERATIONS.

The Chinese are looked upon by Americans and other people as decidedly inferior in many things relating to commercial matters, at least, so far as the civilized method of conducting them is concerned. As a nation, they are certainly behind the age in many important matters, but those who are brought in contact commercially with the Chinese merchants and traders, generally find them keenly alive to a bargain. True, in their own produce they may be expected to have very definite ideas of the worth of the article they may wish to purchase. An American dealer may have a correct estimate of the quality of flour, pork, &c., and know also about the current market rate; so also the Chinese in his own country's produce, both in regard to quality and relative price consequent upon the freight, charges and supply in the market. Some of the Chinese merchants of San Francisco have gone into operations in their own goods at different times, and realized handsome fortunes. It is a matter of common report that many of this class of people, residing both in the city of San Francisco and in the State of California, have heavy amounts of capital invested in business, and are quite extensive dealers and operators. The ship *Potomac*, which recently arrived at the port of San Francisco from Hong Kong, is a striking illustration of Chinese thrift. She was purchased in that port some time since for about \$5,000, and cleared for Hong Kong, where she was subsequently re-sold for some \$25,000. In the mean time an extra deck was added to the vessel, and the sum of \$7,000 dollars obtained for a single voyage from Hong Kong to San Francisco and back. The *Potomac* brought a large number of emigrants and a small cargo of rice and assorted Chinese goods. She will probably carry back a goodly number of this class of people, who have become satisfied with the result of their work. The ship *Hamilton*, which traded to the port of San Francisco some time ago, also belongs to native Chinese merchants. Since the commencement of the trade between California and China, the latter people have imbibed some of our commercial ideas, and enter into maritime transactions with considerable alacrity. Since the late commencement of the emigration to this country and Australia, consequent upon the disturbed condition of their native land, the Chinese merchants charter and freight vessels with the same spirit as the foreign mercantile houses at Hong Kong.

BUSINESS FACILITIES OF BOSTON.

A correspondent of the *Atlas* calls attention to the following facts in connection with the dry goods trade of Boston. He says:—

Our domestic manufacturers generally pay but one per cent commission for selling their goods in Boston, while in New York or Philadelphia no domestic goods are sold for less than from five to seven and a half per cent commission and guaranty. Of course this difference must be paid by the purchaser there; comment is unnecessary. Another advantage in trading here is, that the trade already established consists of the best kind of customers. I know of one large establishment, (and doubtless the same fact will apply to others,) whose losses by bad debts during the last five years have not amounted to one fourth of one per cent. The paying customer does not, therefore, have to make up for the shortcomings of others. Still another consideration of great moment is, that when certain favorite styles of goods are scarce in the market, which is not by any means a rare occurrence, they are much more likely to be found in Boston, where they originate, than abroad.

A WORD TO MERCHANTS TOUCHING THEIR CLERKS.

A number of the clerks along Delaware Avenue and Market street, Philadelphia, have petitioned their employers to be allowed to cease their labors at an earlier hour in the afternoon, thus giving them more time for recreation. There is a limit to toil set by God. He who has given bounds to the ocean—who has placed the duration of light and darkness under a rule—who has put all things under law—whose universe is an embodiment of order—has made it impossible to continue toil beyond a certain limit, without detriment. And if that limit be passed, injury succeeds. The man made rich by the long-hour system may be a murderer of men; the destroyer of morals and happiness; the adversary of souls, and may hold riches as Judas held the thirty pieces of silver—his gains may be the price of blood!

THE SULPHUR TRADE OF NAPLES.

An English cotemporary published a paragraph intimating that the King of Naples had prohibited the export of sulphur. From a letter published in the *Belfast Commercial Journal*, dated Newcastle-upon-Tyne, we make the following extract:—

As the Tyne is largely interested in this trade, sulphur forming an important ingredient in the raw material and in the immense chemical works on its banks, the committee of the Newcastle, Shields, and Gateshead Chamber of Commerce communicated with the Foreign Office, pointing out the injurious results to our trade that would arise from this prohibition. The chairman of the Chamber of Commerce has received a reply from Lord Clarendon which states—"that on an attentive examination of the terms of that declaration, and of the language employed by the Neapolitan Minister to her Majesty's Charge d'Affaires and Consul on the subject, the prohibition to export sulphur appears to be solely applicable to Neapolitan vessels, and accordingly her Majesty's government have not felt themselves called upon to make any remonstrances against the decision of the Neapolitan government, not to allow Neapolitan vessels to be employed in the export of sulphur to the ports of the belligerent Powers, except in a particular instance in which an intimation that vessels chartered previously to the promulgation of the declaration should not be interfered with appears to have been disregarded. With the view, however, of preventing any future misunderstanding as to the meaning of the declaration, her Majesty's Charge d'Affaires at Naples has been instructed to mention to the Neapolitan Minister that, relying upon the terms of that document, and upon the explanations given by him to her Majesty's diplomatic and consular agents, her Majesty's government consider that the apprehensions felt in regard to British vessels being prohibited from exporting sulphur to this country rest upon no solid foundation. Her Majesty's Charge d'Affaires will also point out to the Neapolitan Minister that sulphur is an article which should be looked upon as contraband of war according to circumstances, and according to the use for which it may fairly be presumed to be destined, and to the character of the port to which it is to be conveyed; and that when exported in its native or unmanufactured state, it may be presumed to be destined for peaceable and not for warlike purposes, especially when sent to mercantile ports."

CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR IN THE UNITED STATES.

In 1853, there were consumed in the United States, about 705,000,000 pounds of cane sugar, and 27,000,000 pounds of maple sugar. This gives more than 24 of cane sugar and 1 pound of maple sugar to every man, woman and child. If this were put into barrels holding 200 lbs., and each barrel occupied the space of 3 square feet only, it would require 336 acres of land for it to stand upon. The barrels, if placed in a row, would reach 280 miles. If this sugar were put up in paper packages of 5 lbs. each, it would require 145,400,000 sheets of wrapping paper; and if only a yard of string was used to each package, there would be required 439,250,000 feet, or 83,000 miles of string—more than three times enough to go round the earth. If every retail clerk sold 100 pounds of sugar each day, it would require nearly 25,000 clerks to sell it in a year. If the dealers, wholesale and retail together, made a profit of only two cents a pound on this sugar, these profits alone would amount to nearly \$15,000,000.

THE GUM ARABIC OF COMMERCE.

In Morocco, about the middle of November, that is, after a rainy season, which begins in July, a gummy juice exudes spontaneously from the trunk and principal branches of the acacia-tree. In about fifteen days it thickens in the furrow, down which it runs either in vermicular (or worm) shape, or commonly assuming the form of oval and round tears, about the size of a pigeon's egg, of different colors, as they belong to the white or red gum tree. About the middle of December the Moors encamp on the border of the forest, and the harvest lasts six weeks. The gum is packed in very large sacks of leather, and brought on the backs of bullocks and camels to certain ports, where it is sold to French and English merchants. It is highly nutritious. During the whole time of harvest, of the journey, and of the fair, the Moors of the desert live almost entirely upon it, and experience proves that six ounces of gum are sufficient for the support of a man twenty-four hours.

WHAT TO EXPORT TO AUSTRALIA.

The London *Times* has the following in regard to exports to Australia. The hints it contains may be of service to shippers in the United States who commenced intercourse with that country:—

Over and over again do the trade circulars before us repeat that the best goods only will command a sale, and especially is this the case in all such commodities as minister to the personal satisfaction of the gold diggers. Of wines we read, "In this market a really superior wine will always command its price, and none other should be sent." Of preserves and provisions, "We desire to impress upon shippers the very great importance of sending merchandise of this class of a first-rate quality, and in the best packages; we can state it as an invariable rule, that a really good article will always bring a fair price." Of malt liquors, "The quantity of bad stuff in bad packages is perfectly frightful. There is at this moment no sound Burton ale in first hands, and a really good article will bring considerably higher prices than our quotations." Of furniture, "Superior goods only will pay the importer, and for really good assortments from 50 to 70 per cent is readily realized." These brief directions ought to convey all the instructions necessary. To make the Australian trade profitable, the very best goods must be sent out in such a manner that they may retain their quality when they arrive. If this simple rule is adhered to, the Melbourne market may still be reckoned invaluable, and our exportations will not only be enormous in statistical amount, but proportionately productive in their material returns.

MILLIONAIRES OF ST. LOUIS.

The receipts from rents, &c., of property owned by Col. John O'Fallon are said to have reached \$151,000 last year. The rents of James H. Lucas, Esq., exceeded \$80,000; and that of Col. Joshua B. Brant, \$36,000. The sum first named represents, we suppose, the entire yearly revenue of Col. O'Fallon; the other sums, only the rents from real property. Col. Brant is besides rich in stocks and money. Mr. Lucas' landed estate—a portion of a few arpents bought by his father hardly forty years ago for twenty dollars an acre—is worth now probably thirty-two hundred thousand dollars, and is rapidly rising in value. There is besides Daniel D. Page, who is immensely rich, but whose income we have not heard stated. The profits of his banking business—conducted in St. Louis and San Francisco, under the firm of Page & Bacon and Page, Bacon & Co.—are set at very high figures, running from three hundred to six hundred thousand dollars a year. There is besides a little host of millionaires, or men not far from millionaires—men like the brothers Lindel, Rankin, the Mullanphy heirs, Walsh, &c., &c., whose incomes rise from ten thousand upwards.

We have spoken now only of fixed incomes, derived from rents, stock dividends, interest on money, &c. Coming to profits in business, we find among our merchants and manufacturers very large incomes. Not to mention names, there are individuals or firms transacting a business valued at from \$500,000 to \$1,500,000 a year. We have heard of a single house which last year sold to the amount of nineteen hundred thousand dollars, yielding a profit of little less than a quarter of a million of dollars.—*St. Louis Herald.*

THE HAIR AND FEATHER TRADE OF NEW YORK.

Some of those things that we have most to do with, it is well remarked by our cotemporary of the *Journal of Commerce*, we know least about. Everybody is supposed to sleep on a bed of some kind, yet but few pretend to know how the bed is made, and what is in it. It is for this reason that the hair and feather business is allowed to yield, sometimes, unconsciously big profits. The local trade of this city in these two articles may be estimated at \$3,000,000. The firm most largely engaged in it is Mellen, Banks & Pomroy, who purchase feathers and hair in the markets of Russia and South America, and work up the raw material in their own factories. The annual consumption of hair by this single establishment is equal to about \$700,000, and of feathers, about \$1,000,000. The former is principally procured from South America, where the wild horses are killed for their hides and fat and the product of their manes and tails. The fat, upon arriving at New York, is transmuted into soap, and is doubtless often admired for its aroma and variegated colors. Russia also furnishes large quantities of hair, as of feathers; but if the war continues the supply

from this direction will cease, and the price be enhanced. For upholstering purposes, Ohio hogs' bristles are used, and it is barely possible that this kind of hair sometimes gets mixed with the description designed for mattresses, &c. There are annually used by the establishment referred to, 1,000,000 pounds of South American hair, 200,000 pounds Russian, and 700,000 Western. Of feathers, there are used 1,000,000 pounds of Western, and 1,500,000 pounds of Russian. Mellen & Co. work up about 2,000 pounds of hair per day. The process is as follows: From the bales it is thrown into a "picker" making 800 revolutions per minute, and then twisted into ropes by machinery to make it curl. The next process is to boil it, that it may be thoroughly cleansed, for which purpose it is put into vats heated with "exhaust" steam from the engine; this done, it is thoroughly dried in an oven. The ropes of hair are then ready to be picked into pieces for use. In connection with the principal establishment, in all its departments, 163 men are employed. The Company have recently removed to an elegant marble store in Broadway.

CAPITAL DOES NOT ALWAYS HELP A PLACE.

If we talk with the inhabitants of almost any of our spry young villages, says the *New York Times*, along the new lines of travel, they tell us that their great lack is men of capital—men who have the money. Without them they fear that their growth will be slow. With them they could build factories of one sort and another, build and fit out whale ships, and introduce new kinds of business.

Well, Capital could do a deal more than it does now—a great deal more than it will. It furnishes the blood on which the body lives, but it is very apt to nourish wens and tumors, and accumulate it in enormous aneurisms while the system pines and starves. Capital moves into the village where two railroads meet, the very spot into which emigration flows most naturally, buys up lots and holds them so high that emigration rolls back again, finding no place to plant its foot upon. Capital erects a factory that deludes scores into its neighborhood with the promise of steady work, and puts wages so low that few can afford to toil for them. Capital fits out a whale ship and thus employs many men, and pays them in trade at the Capitalist's store. Capital sells off lots from his large tract of land on time, taking a mortgage on lots and improvements for security. Time does not always bring every penny in for punctual payment, and lands and tenements go back to benefit capital and ruin other holders in turn. Capital is, like fire, an excellent servant of humanity and the people, but it is a hard master. And many a village would find far happier results accruing from the judicious combination of the small means already in its possession, than from the acquisition of a large capital which is to be directed by a selfish few.

PRESERVED MEATS FOR THE CALIFORNIA MARKET.

We publish in the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, the subjoined remarks and suggestions, which we find in a late number of the *Alta California*, for the benefit of our Atlantic shippers of the articles enumerated:—

California, among other things, has called forth the attention of the dealers in meat provisions, for the most perfect preservation of hams and bacon, and other meats, intended for this market. Preserved meats in tin, as well as preserved fruits, of various kinds, are put up extensively in the Atlantic States for the California trade, and have become to a certain extent a matter of necessity. In the absence of fresh pork in the desired quantities throughout the State, and at reasonable prices, the market has been supplied with several favorite brands of hams and bacon, which are nicely cured and then done up in patent muslin covers, which entirely excludes the air and leaves the meat as fresh and moist as when first cured. Among the brands of meats of this kind are Horace Billings' patent covered hams and bacon, Ames' and Cassard's patent muslin covered hams and bacon, and the celebrated Westphalia hams. This style of provisions, in addition to the large and varied kinds of preserved meats put up in hermetically sealed tins, are much used throughout the cities and State, and are found particularly convenient and agreeable. Families, hotels, &c., use the class of provisions mentioned from the fact that the air-tight covering preserves the meat in its primitive state, and retains the flavor so much desired in salt provisions. Until California can supply herself with her own pork, we shall be dependent upon the Atlantic States for hams and bacon.

 THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Na Motu; or Reef-Rovings in the South Seas.* A Narrative of Adventure at the Hawaiian, Georgian, and Society Islands. With Illustrations, and an Appendix relating to the resources, social and political condition of Polynesia and subjects of interest in the Pacific Ocean. 8vo., pp. 456. New York: Putney & Russell.

Na Motu is the fancy title of a work embodying a large amount of commercial fact. Our trade in the Pacific, which has rushed up to such gigantic proportions within a few years, is as yet only at the beginning of a career of which human foresight can hardly imagine the complete result. *Na Motu* is written by a careful observer, who has added research to strengthen his own individual observation. The "Island Kingdom of the North Pacific" is the chief point of attraction, and its statistics clearly show the reason why. The total value of foreign imports in 1853 was \$1,281,951 18; value of domestic exports, \$281,599 17; revenue, \$326,620. Of the dutiable imports \$587,770 were from the Atlantic States, and \$367,149 from the Pacific side of California and Oregon. From these items it will be evident that the stream is setting, with almost undivided force towards these United States. We have almost a complete monopoly. The whale-fishery—the pioneer of the Pacific trade—stands justly in this interesting and elaborate volume in the post of honor; and a valuable survey of the past and present state of the trade is given. The American whaling fleet is twelve times as great as the combined whaling fleets of all other nations in the Pacific. The amount of capital engaged, the mode of carrying on the business, the number of men employed in "sperm" and "right" fishing—all are given with condensed minuteness and accuracy. French trade—a new and significant feature in the Pacific—is keenly examined and treated with due attention. The influence of England is carefully yet generally considered; and the new prospects in the East, the products and capabilities of the innumerable Polynesian islands, the bearings of Californian and American business—all these are discussed with much of solid information and business shrewdness. And throughout the whole a pleasant, hearty, chatty style, and an abundance of amusing and personal adventure well told, so judiciously lubricates the joints of statistical tables, that the reader passes pleasantly from beginning to end of the handsomely illustrated volume, hardly aware of the stores of information he has acquired in regard to Pacific Commerce.

- 2.—*The British Poets.* The Works of JONATHAN SWIFT. With a Life by Rev. JOHN MITFORD. In three vols. 18mo. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. New York: Evans & Dickerson.

Sir Walter Scott summed up Swift's character as an author in a manner so just, discriminating and impartial, and is withal such excellent authority in literary criticism, that we may be pardoned for quoting the peculiarities so remarkable in Swift as a writer and a poet. The first peculiarity awarded by Scott, is the distinguished attribute of *originality*, which he says cannot be refused to him by the severest critic. The second peculiarity was his total indifference to literary fame; he wrote with the sole object of rendering his works fit for accomplishing a certain purpose, beyond which they were of no value in his eyes. The third distinguishing mark of Swift's literary character (with the exception of history) was, that he never attempted a style of composition in which he has not attained a distinguished pitch of excellence. He never attempted the sublime or pathetic; but in every department of poetry where that was necessary, he displayed, as the subject chanced to require, either the blasting lightning of nature, or the lambent and meteor-like caricatures of frolicsome humor. Swift's lines fall as easily into the best grammatical arrangement and the most simple and forcible expressions, as if he had been writing prose.

- 3.—*Twenty Years in the Philippines.* Translated from the French of PAUL P. DE LA GIRONIERE, Chevalier of the Legion of Honor. 12mo., pp. 372. New York: Harper & Brothers.

An exceedingly interesting and attractive work, replete with stirring incidents and hair-breadth escapes. It is regarded by those who have read it as equal in interest to the most exciting novel or romance. A cotemporary pronounces it the most entertaining book of the season.

- 4.—*Off-Hand Takings; or, Crayon Sketches of the Noticeable Men of our Age.* By GEORGE W. BUNGAY. Embellished with twenty Steel Engravings. 12mo., pp. 408. New York: Dewitt & Davenport.

The author gives us one of the most readable books of the present teeming era. It is a peculiarity of human nature that it delights to learn of individual excellence, be the person in whatever rank he may—and here we have full opportunity to indulge in this pleasure of personal recognition. With sketches of the most distinguished Americans presented to us, we have, beside the necessary biographical detail, the most varied and truly happy delineation of their every-day manners, public reputation and personal peculiarities—all respectfully couched, yet vigorously executed. A striking feature of this work is the entire absence of sameness in the sketches. One can readily appreciate the difficulty of this kind of writing, where the merits of two or three score of public men are to be delineated, with each, in many respects, possessing the peculiarities of others; but yet, through the long catalogue of statesmen, preachers, literateurs, reformers, &c., &c., there is as varied description and fresh, ready narrative to each, as we should expect did the volume consist of but one tenth of its present contents. In truth, the sketches may be likened to a gallery of well-selected paintings, where the freshness, beauty and individuality of each is so marked a feature that the beholder wanders in astonishment at the wealth of resource, the versatility of genius, and the agreeable adaptation of colors to the subject, which he notices so profusely all about him. We are glad Mr. Bungay has given us with his inimitable crayon, the mental and other characteristics of the very men who now are recognized as the "representatives" of the various classes of our population. Thus, of the living, Chapin, Phillips, and Ward Beecher; the bold pioneer Fremont; Benton, Seward, Sumner, Everett, Hale, Van Buren, and other political celebrities; the philanthropic Mann, Robinson, Smith, and others; those gifted sons of song, Bryant, Whittier, Lowell, Pierpont, Morris, Willis; the brilliant and versatile Emerson, Irving, Whipple, Hawthorne, and others, equally well known in the world of letters; a whole galaxy of divines, counsellors, merchants, and other workers—fit types and representatives of busy, thriving, progressive America, the features of each of whom are made familiarly known to us. We may say, in conclusion, that Mr. Bungay has been eminently successful in his sketches. We detect but few misapplications of his pencil. His figures stand out boldly from the canvas, and are redolent of the beauty and life-like expression which an artist of so much poetry and enthusiasm must throw around them. We feel, while we read, that we are side by side, face to face even, with the heroes of the page. We see their every movement, observe the color of their dress, and are their *other half* in every respect. So much for the fidelity of the author. The publishers have done their work well, as they always do, and in the magnificent steel engravings which accompany the letter-press of this volume we have a new indication of their liberality and good taste.

- 5.—*Revolutionary History of North Carolina: In Three Lectures.* By Rev. FRANCIS L. HAWKS, D. D., LL. D., Hon. DAVID L. SWAIN, LL. D., and Hon. WILLIAM A. GRAHAM, LL. D. To which is prefixed a Preliminary Sketch of the Alamance, compiled by WILLIAM D. COOK, A. M. Illustrated by Darley & Lossing. 8vo., pp. 237. Raleigh: Wm. D. Cook. New York: M. W. Dodd.

The first thirty pages of this work contain an account of the battle Alamance, followed by a lecture on the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence, delivered before the New York Historical Society, by the Rev. Francis L. Hawks, D. D., LL. D., "The British Invasion of North Carolina in 1776," a lecture delivered before the Historical Society of the University of North Carolina, April 1, 1853, by Hon. David L. Swain, LL. D., and another lecture on "The British Invasion of North Carolina in 1780 and 1781," delivered before the New York Historical Society in January, 1853. The whole forming an interesting and valuable contribution to the revolutionary history of her country. The work is illustrated with several well-executed engravings by Darley and Lossing.

- 6.—*The Undying One, Sorrows of Rosalie, and other Poems.* By Hon. Mrs. NORTON. 12mo., pp. 388. New York: Charles S. Francis & Co.

That Mrs. Norton is a true and genuine poet, and that she has written some of the best in the English language, no critic ever pretended to doubt. Criticism would be out of place in our Journal; but we merely wish to notice the beautiful edition of her works before us, and simply to say that the mechanical construction of the book is every way worthy of the pure thoughts and fine poetry it contains.

- 7.—*The History of the Ingenious Gentleman, Don Quixote of La Mancha.* Translated from the Spanish by MATTHEW. A new edition, with copious Notes, and an Essay on the Life and Writings of Cervantes. By JOHN G. LOCKHART, Esq. In 4 vols. 12mo., pp. 344, 457, 418, 406. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

This is beyond all question the most perfect edition of Don Quixote ever published in the English language. It is an exact reprint of that edited by Mr. Lockhart, and published in five volumes, in Edinburgh, in 1822. It was then that the translation of the Spanish Ballads first appeared, and although Mr. Lockhart did not place his name in the title page, he is well known to be the translator of the Ballads, and to have edited the edition. Of four distinct translations of this great romance, in England, the present is the only one, containing notes, to render the text intelligible. On the publication of this translation, in 1822, Blackwood's Magazine, in an elaborate and discriminating review, expressed its surprise that we should never have had any edition whatever of any one of four translations, containing notes. The few miserable scraps, says Blackwood, commonly found at the foot of the page, in other editions, are not worth mentioning. The text of Don Quixote, full as it is of allusions to history and romance, remained to all intents and purposes, without annotation, comment or explanation, and of course, of the readers of Don Quixote, very few ever understood the meaning of Cervantes—a thousand of his happiest hits went for nothing. This great blank, continues the authority above quoted, has now been ably and fully supplied, and the English reader is in possession of an edition of Don Quixote, not only infinitely superior to any that ever before appeared in England, but, so far as we are able to judge, much more complete and satisfactory than any one which exists in the literature of Spain herself.

- 8.—*Calavar; or the Knights of the Conquest. A Romance of Mexico.* By ROBERT MONTGOMERY BIRD, Author of "Nick of the Woods," "The Infidel," &c. 12mo., pp. 572. New York: J. S. Redfield.

This is a new edition of a work originally published some thirteen years ago. It was written with a view of illustrating one of the most romantic and poetical chapters in the history of the New World, and with the hope of calling the attention of Americans to a portion of the continent, which it required little political forecast to perceive must, before many years, assume a new and particular interest to the United States. It is written with the strictest historical accuracy compatible with the requisitions of romance. "Calavar" is designed to describe the first campaign, or the first year of Cortes in Mexico.

- 9.—*Records of the Bubbleton Parish; or Papers from the Experience of an American Minister.* With Illustrations by Billings. 12mo., pp. 340. Boston: A. Tompkins & B. B. Mussey.

A number of tales have been written and published during the last eighteen months designed to illustrate the relations of pastor and people. We have had "Shady Sides," and "Sunny Sides," and are likely to have all "sides." Many portions of the present work originally appeared in the columns of a periodical, where they attracted a good deal of attention. Indeed, some who have read it, pronounce it superior to the other productions of its class. Its plan is certainly original, and the ground it traverses new, and on the whole, it will lose nothing by comparison. Its scenes possess a high moral and dramatic interest.

- 10.—*A Complete Guide to Ornamental Leather Work.* With twenty-three Cuts. Reprinted from the London Edition. 18mo., pp. 74. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

This little volume contains every particular connected with ornamental leather work—a very useful source of amusement and fashionable department of practical art. The drawings have been copied from the models executed in leather, and combine durability with beauty of design.

- 11.—*Vara; or the Child of Adoption.* 12mo., pp. 316. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

A story of domestic and social life, conveying principles well calculated to promote the true happiness of every family circle. It is written in an agreeable and attractive style, and may be read by the most fastidious opponents of fiction with benefit. Carter & Brothers have not, as we are aware, published anything contrary to "Orthodox Protestantism."

- 12.—*A Popular Account of the Ancient Egyptians*. Revised and Abridged from his Larger Works, by Sir J. GARDNER WILKINSON, D.C.L., F.R.S., &c. Two vols. 12mo, pp. 419 and 436. New York: Harper & Brothers.

These volumes are abridged by the author from his "Ancient Egyptians," written in 1834. Having however, revisited Egypt, he has added other matter—the results of later discoveries. The new matter embraces, among other things, a comparison of the habits and arts of the Greeks and other people with those of the Egyptians; observations on decorative art, as well as on color, form, and proportion, so well understood in ancient times. The attention in monetary circles being now directed towards the question of the precious metals, his observations on the comparative wealth of ancient and modern times are particularly well-timed. Wilkinson is beyond all question the most laborious and original explorer in Egypt, and every traveler in that region, since the publication of his great work, have freely availed themselves of his labors, sometimes acknowledging their obligations, but more frequently omitting to do so. The work contains nearly four hundred wood-cut illustrations.

- 13.—*Persons and Pictures from the Histories of France and England from the Norman Conquest to the Fall of the Stuarts*. By HENRY WILLIAM HERBERT, author of "The Captains of the Old Republics," &c., &c. 12mo, pp. 440. New York: Riker, Thorn & Co.

The "persons and pictures" collected in this volume are selected from the most stirring and interesting epochs of the French and English histories—from the Conquest to the Fall of the Stuarts—from the introduction of the Feudal system to the establishment of a Constitutional government. If in some instances the scenes, &c., are fictitious, they appear to be drawn with fidelity to the costume of the day, the spirit of the times, and the character of the persons brought upon the stage as actors. On the whole, the volume contains a series of lively and dramatic views of some of the most celebrated individuals, some of the most remarkable instances of vice and virtue, heroism and fortitude, as well as some of the most picturesque events, which occur in the history of six eventful centuries.

- 14.—*The Hive or "The Bee Hunter": a Repository of Sketches, including Peculiar American Character, Scenery, and Rural Sports*. By T. B. THORP, of Louisiana, author of "Tom Owen, the Bee Hunter," "Mysteries of the Backwoods," &c., &c. Illustrated by Sketches drawn from Nature. 12mo, pp. 312. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

In these beautifully printed and finely illustrated pages the author graphically sketches the scenery of the southwest, so that those personally unacquainted with it can form a just idea of the country, its surface, vegetation, &c. He shows that the region he describes, with its primeval and evergreen forests, its unbounded prairies, and its many and continuous rivers, presents contributions of Nature which the pilgrims from every land, for the first time, behold with wonder and awe. It is withal an amusing as well as an instructive book.

- 15.—*Utah and the Mormons*. The History, Government, Doctrines, Customs, and Prospects of the Latter Day Saints, from Personal Observation during Six Months' Residence at Great Salt Lake City. By BENJAMIN G. FERRIS, late Secretary of Utah Territory. 12mo, pp. 347. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Ferris has aimed, in the present work, to give a strictly impartial account of the Mormons as they have been and as they are, without however, abstaining from a free expression of opinion, whenever the facts seemed to warrant a fair conclusion. He has allowed them to speak for themselves, whenever practicable or consistent with the brevity of the work. He acknowledges with gratitude the kindness he received at the hands of many of the leading Mormons, but does not appear to be biased from a free and candid delineation of their character and customs.

- 16.—*Lives of the Queens of Scotland and English Princesses, connected with the Regal Succession of Great Britain*. By AGNES STRICKLAND, author of the "Lives of the Queens of England." Vol. IV. 12mo, pp. 347. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We have referred to the volumes of this series as they have successively appeared, in terms of commendation, and if it were necessary would repeat our notes of commendation, but as it is not, we will merely state that the present volume, the fourth, is devoted entirely to the life of Mary Stuart.

17.—*A Rivulet from the Ocean of Truth.* An Authentic and Interesting Narrative of the advancement of a Spirit from Darkness to Light. Proving by an actual instance the influence of Man, on Earth, over the Departed. With Introductory and Incidental Remarks. By JOHN S. ADAMS. 8vo., pp. 72. Boston: Bela Marsh.

18.—*The Philosophy of Creation.* Unfolding the Laws of the Progressive Development of Nature, and embracing the Philosophy of Man, Spirit, and the Spirit World. By Thomas Paine, through the hand of HORACE G. WOOD, Medium. 8vo., pp. 120. Boston: Bela Marsh.

19.—*Free Thoughts Concerning Religion; or Nature versus Theology.* By ANDREW JACKSON DAVIS.

These three pamphlets are the productions of the "Spiritualists," and purport to come from the unseen world through "mediums" tabernacled in "flesh and blood." There is much poetry and religion in the mediums—and who can say there is not inspiration? Those who take an interest in the investigation of the subject will, of course, "read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest" the statements advanced in the works named at the head of this notice.

20.—*The History of the Buccaneers of America.* Containing detailed Accounts of those bold and daring Freebooters—chiefly along the Spanish Main, in the West Indies, and in the Great South Sea, succeeding the Civil Wars in England. 8vo., pp. 484. Boston: B. B. Mussey.

This work was originally published in 1699. The present edition embraces additional notices of piracies on the coast of New England down to the year 1724. The wondrous actions, (we quote from the preface to edition of 1699,) and daring adventures related, are such as will transport the most stupid minds into an admiration of them, though many times they were not attended by that justice and regularity that becomes civilized men, or men of any pretensions to morality. It is a work of considerable historical interest. One of the characters conspicuous in its pages, John Fillmore, was the great-grandfather of ex-President Millard Fillmore, of New York.

21.—*Turkey and the Turks.* By J. V. C. SMITH, Author of "A Pilgrimage to Egypt," "A Pilgrimage to Palestine," and "Letters from Ancient Cities of the East." 12mo., pp. 320. Boston: James French.

The present well-timed volume is the epitome of a diary regularly kept by Dr. Smith while traveling in the East. Portions of it, however, relating to the social and political institutions of Turkey, were communicated to Gleason's beautiful *Pictorial*. These have been revised and extended by the author. The character of the Turks is portrayed with apparent liberality and impartiality; and the work contains, without many statistical details, a comprehensive account of the manners, customs, and habits of the Turks, as well as descriptions of portions of the Ottoman Empire.

22.—*The Christian Household: Embracing the Christian Home, Husband, Wife, Father, Mother, Child, Brother and Sister.* By CHARLES S. WEAVER, author of "Lectures on Mental Science," "Hopes and Helps for the Young," "Moral Antipodes," &c., &c. 18mo., pp. 140. Boston: A. Tompkins, and B. B. Mussey & Co.

The author of this little treatise applies with zeal and earnestness, the influences of Christianity to all the domestic relations of life. The volume is "most gratefully and affectionately" dedicated to the author's mother, "whose care was the shield of his childhood, whose faith was the strength of his youth, and whose love the delight of his manhood." We commend it to all who would cultivate the virtues and graces of domestic life.

23.—*Footprints of Famous men.* Designed as Incitements to Intellectual Industry. By JOHN G. EDGAR, Author of the "Boyhood of Great Men." New York: Harper & Brothers.

If endowed with a temperament of the least physical or mental energy, this little volume, which is similar in design to the "Boyhood of Great Men," and equally interesting and attractive, cannot fail of producing on the minds of the young the most beneficial results, by inciting them to intellectual activity and attainments.

24.—*Pictures of Life in England and America.* Prose and Poetry. By DEAN DUDLEY. 12mo., pp. 251. Boston: James French.

A sketch book containing a variety of pleasant and agreeable notices of men and things in the Old and New world, mingled with anecdotes, sentiments, and poetry.

- 25.—*Photographic Views of Egypt, Past and Present.* By JOSEPH THOMPSON. 12mo., pp. 353. Boston: J. P. Jewett & Co.

Mr. Thompson is an eloquent divine, an accomplished scholar, and what is more, a true man. He visited Egypt in 1853, having six months before left New York "in the uncertainty of pulmonary disease, to try the benefit of a year of travel in more genial climes." The balmy air of Egypt brought healing to his lungs, and to the world of letters the present very interesting and attractive volume. Of the many books that have been written, relating to scenes in Egypt, we venture to say that few, if any, will compare with this in freshness or interest. Each view taken by the light which itself threw upon the mind—as he tells us—is *photographed* by the outward upon the inward, and again transferred from the inward to the outward. His pictures of Egypt, we have no doubt are faithful—"taken as they were and given as they were taken." The volume is handsomely printed, and appropriately illustrated.

- 26.—*The Plurality of Worlds.* With an Introduction by EDWARD HITCHCOCK, D.D., President of Amherst College, and Professor of Theology and Geology. 12mo., pp. 307. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

The author of this remarkable work thinks, and not without reason, that it may now be deemed as "blamable" to doubt the existence of inhabitants of the Planets, and Stars, as, three centuries ago it was held heretical to teach that doctrine, and yet he is bold enough to teach the former, and with a power and force of argument that will doubtless shake the faith of some. The work is well worth reading, and the author says he has tried to give to the book not only a moral but a scientific interest. The partial endorsement of Professor Hitchcock, by writing an Introduction, will secure for it the attention of many who would not otherwise venture to look into it.

- 27.—*Slavery. Letters and Speeches.* By HORACE MANN, the First Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education. 12mo., pp. 564. Boston: B. B. Mussey & Co.

Mr. Mann, now President of Antioch College, represented the Whig, and afterwards the Freesoil party of the Eighth Congressional District in Congress for several years. The present volume consists of letters accepting the several nominations, speeches delivered in Congress, and at public meetings in Massachusetts—all relating to the subject of slavery. An action for libel was commenced against the publisher, Mr. Mussey, for one of the speeches contained in the present volume. The work is dedicated by the author to the young men of Massachusetts.

- 28.—*Rollo's Tour in Europe.* Rollo in Paris. By JACOB ABBOTT. 18mo., pp. 226. W. J. Reynolds & Co.

This is the second of a new series of books by Mr. Abbott. The first volume, published at the close of last year, was noticed in the *Merchants' Magazine* in terms of high but deserved commendation. No better books for young persons have ever been published. The author has the happy faculty of imparting knowledge in a most attractive and agreeable form. The present series are to be comprised in six volumes, in which Rollo's visits to Switzerland, London, Scotland, and on the Rhine, will be described.

- 29.—*Flora Lyndsay; or Passages in an Eventful Life.* By Mrs. MOODIE, author of "Mark Hurdleston," "Life in the Clearings," "Roughing it in the Bush," &c. 1 vol. 12mo., pp. 343. New York: Dewitt & Davenport.

A tale of the emigration of a young couple from England to Canada to better their condition. Passing through perils and dangers in their voyage out they at length reach their new home, and find their efforts crowned with success. It illustrates the trite, but truthful aphorism, that from trifling circumstances the greatest events often spring, and the moral that Providence has an overruling agency in the affairs of every day life.

- 30.—*A History of England.* By JOHN LINGARD, D.D. Vol. V. 18mo., pp. 361. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

The fifth volume of this standard work is before us. It commences with the succession of Henry IV., in 1413, and closes with the death of Henry VII., in 1496. This volume also embraces the reigns of Henry VI., Edward IV. and V., and Richard the Third. It is regarded by liberal Protestants as one of the most impartial histories of the times to which it refers that has ever been published.